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## *On Locating Community Colleges*

### EDITORIAL

EXPERIENCE in making state-wide inquiries, sponsored by legislative commissions, to project plans for junior-college, or community-college, development cannot fail early to bring home to the investigator that existing institutions of higher education at times constitute formidable obstacles to legislation to implement the plans. Resistance arises, in the main, from the opinion that existing institutions serve the need and from the fear that they may in time be displaced by the community colleges. Resistance is usually most vigorous in the communities of location of existing institutions and is, in the minds of opponents, justified by an all-too-prevalent belief that the presence of a higher institution, of whatever nature, in the locality sets aside the need for a community college.

The issue of whether existing higher institutions can serve the community-college need may be given concrete illustration by the situation in one commonwealth in which a legislative commission has

recently been sponsoring a state-wide inquiry. The commonwealth is populous, and almost a hundred of the local school districts have high-school enrolments large enough to warrant considering them as possible locations for community colleges. The state has within its borders about a hundred higher institutions of various types, including universities, liberal arts colleges, teachers' colleges, extension centers, professional schools admitting high-school graduates, and private junior colleges. The list of institutions includes a single local public junior college. About two-thirds of the districts with high-school enrolments meeting the criterion for community colleges are without higher institutions. The other third have one or more higher institutions and, according to the prevalent point of view just mentioned, have no need for community colleges.

The issue for these districts with existing institutions should be settled on the basis of the degree to

which these institutions achieve the the democratization inherent in the community college. A useful gauge of this degree is the proportion of local high-school graduates continuing at the post-high-school level. The actual proportion is for these districts with higher institutions not strikingly larger than for districts without them, and it is far less than half that in districts with local junior colleges in states having strong junior-college development.

Some of the restrictive factors on continuance may be enumerated. The average tuition charge in the higher institutions of the state exceeded \$350, whereas community colleges are tuition-free. It has been found that a tuition charge of only a hundred dollars per year cuts the proportion of high-school graduates in the lower socio-economic levels who continue their education to less than half that in the tuition-free situations. The offerings at the junior-college level in the higher institutions of the state were too exclusively in the liberal arts and preprofessional tradition and few included terminal occupational or terminal general curriculums, whereas the typical community college maintains curriculums for both preparatory and terminal students. Almost all the insti-

tutions were selective of student body, while the community college is characteristically nonselective. Besides, many of the existing institutions are denominationally controlled and serve students of one sex only, whereas the community college is nondenominational and coeducational. It is important to bear in mind also that usually two or more of these restrictive factors, seldom a single factor only, are operative in a given institution. Establishment of community colleges should be discouraged only in districts with institutions where the restrictive factors are negligible.

Few persons would today urge that the presence in a school district of a tuition-charging, highly selective, college-preparatory school of high-school grade serving mainly students of one denomination and of one sex only should be accepted as the reason for not maintaining in that district a free public high school. The analogy for the community college is a pat one, the only difference being in the level of schooling represented, and, as almost everyone knows, the post-high-school level is following, in degree of popularization, close on the level immediately below.

LEONARD V. KOOS



## *A Process of Investigation for Occupational Interests*

MELVENE DRAHEIM HARDEE

AND

DOROTHY M. POLLOCK

FOR the recent high-school graduate, new to college life, the philosophy and practices of occupational or vocational guidance need to be particularized. Ordinarily, the first-year student comes to college with little or no idea about an occupational goal, a vague and poorly defined goal, a goal which is definite but based on scanty or inexact information, or a goal which shifts with very little basis for change. It is obvious that many students are not ready for the selection of an occupation on a permanent level. Instead, these students need an orientation into the possibilities which exist for them, together with knowledge and understanding of their own abilities as these relate to the occupations open to them. The re-

sponsibility for this orientation lies with the counselors in the occupational (or vocational) guidance department. As two recent writers indicate:

The vocational counselor . . . should know not only the conditions, requirements, and prospects of the different vocations; he should first of all know how to counsel. If he takes too much responsibility, he injures his counselees. If he drops all responsibility into their laps, he burdens them with a load they cannot carry. He has to teach them how to choose a vocation. But teaching here is not limited to intellectual instruction. He has to help them to grow up, to find themselves, to discover their possibilities and to adjust themselves to the necessities of our civilization. The counselor has always to be an educator and a guide to self-responsibility.<sup>1</sup>

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A program designed to teach students how to choose a vocation (occupation) must assist each student to acquire self-responsibility

<sup>1</sup> Fritz Kunkel and Ruth Gardner, *What Do You Advise?* p. 5. New York: Ives Washburn, Inc., 1946.

through acquisition of definite knowledge, skills, and attitudes. While the type of organization for the guidance work will vary, depending on the size of the educational institution, the training of the staff, the physical setup, and other factors, the objectives of an occupational guidance program in general education must be concerned with teaching the students to choose an occupation wisely.<sup>2</sup>

Two objectives which may be adopted for the guidance of students in the early college years are:

1. To assist the student in establishing occupational and educational goals based on a consideration of individual interests, aptitudes, abilities, and personality traits, and on the occupational opportunities open to the student in view of the needs of society.

2. To assist the student by giving opportunity for thorough investigation of occupational interests and aptitudes, personality traits, and the occupational opportunities open to the students in view of the needs of society.

In an effort to achieve these objectives, counselors in the Department of Occupational Guidance at Stephens College have set out to teach students *a process* by which educational and occupational goals may be formulated. The process includes the following steps:

1. Consideration of *the needs of*

<sup>2</sup> Melvene M. Draheim, "Objectives That Operate in a Program of Occupational Guidance," *School and Society*, LXVII (March 13, 1948), 201.

society as these relate to occupations either remunerative or nonremunerative.

2. *Self-analysis* based on subjective data from past and present experiences and objective data obtained from the battery of tests given all new students.

3. *Occupational analysis*, which includes descriptions, qualifications, demand, salaries, and personality patterns pertinent to the occupations open to college women at the end of two, four, or more years of college training.

4. *Matching of self and occupations* according to the student's philosophy, interests, personality, aptitudes, life-experience and in light of social needs.

5. *Launching of a program of action* to make occupational planning an integral part of the students' life-experience.

### *Needs of Society*

In defining general education, Charters has said:

The term implies those aspects of experience in which every man must participate by virtue of the fact that he is born with certain biological and mental characteristics and into a society composed of other individuals with whom he must live with satisfaction to himself and them.<sup>3</sup>

In defining an occupation, Edwards contends:

A man's life energy flows into society mainly through his occupation. The product of his working day is his chief social delivery. It is the carrier of his

<sup>3</sup> W. W. Charters, "Patterns of Courses in General Education," *Journal of General Education*, I (October, 1946), 58.

personal dynamic, the basic expression of who and what he is.<sup>4</sup>

In other words, the most powerful motivation toward successful living is a purposeful activity based on one's own philosophy of life. An occupation is that pattern of activities with which the individual is occupied in achieving an effective and satisfying way of living.<sup>5</sup> The satisfaction of the individual is increased when the occupation has been wisely chosen. It follows that the needs of society must be taken into account.

In determining social needs, students in the occupational planning class are directed to a study of (1) newspapers and periodicals, (2) bulletins and pamphlets, (3) radio and news reels, (4) recordings of informal talks and speeches by campus visitors (Mrs. Sherwood Eddy and others of the Y.W.C.A., representatives from airlines industry, public relations, agricultural extension, etc.), and (5) reading and class discussion from other courses, such as social problems, economics, religion, etc. The student is helped to become aware that an occupation may be considered a "way of life"

in that it may provide an opportunity to occupy one's self with needful work; an opportunity to absorb, develop, and express self; and an opportunity to share in the world's work. The student becomes aware of those occupational fields for which society's need is increasing—types of work for which there is greater demand because of changing conditions.

In conferences the student and the counselor discuss occupational goals in terms of society's needs. In that way there is emphasis on the fact that the individual may express herself best when she is aware of her obligations for contributing to and sustaining the cultural life of community, state, and nation.

### *Self-Analysis*

The general battery of tests given to students at Stephens College includes:

**INTEREST.**—Stephens College Interest Inventory, originated by the director of the department in 1942, and based on the interest-area classifications devised by Kuder in his Preference Record.

**PERSONALITY.**—Adams and Lepley's Personal Audit, with its breakdown into nine personality traits: sociability, discrimination, patience, objectivity, self-confidence, open-mindedness, responsiveness, flexibility, and decisiveness.

**ABILITIES AND APTITUDES.**—American Council Psychological Examination, Minnesota Paper Form Board, Chicago

<sup>4</sup> Richard H. Edwards, "Pioneering Vocations and Avocations," *Creative Pioneers*, p. 98. Edited by Sherwood Eddy and Kirby Page. New York: Association Press, 1937.

<sup>5</sup> *Occupational Planning for College Women*, p. 8. Prepared by the Vocational Council, Stephens College. Columbia, Missouri: Stephens College, 1945.

Test of Clerical Promise, and the Co-operative English Test.

Results from the tests are prepared on a test profile form which student and counselor discuss together. Through the class explanation of tests and the interview with the counselor, the student learns about her abilities, interests, aptitudes, and personality. In addition, the student is assisted in gaining skill in the use of dependable methods of collecting information about herself. Finally, it is presumed that the student will gain an understanding of herself with regard to strengths and weaknesses and will be able to adjust emotionally to them.<sup>6</sup> With these three types of learning (knowledge, skill, and attitude), she is able to consider an occupational and educational goal from a second realistic viewpoint and in light of the first consideration, social needs.

#### *Occupational Analysis*

As a result of the work in the occupational planning class and of the interviews with the counselor, the student will acquire the following kinds of knowledge: (1) specific information about a number of occupations open to women, (2) advantages and disadvantages of specific occupations, (3) definite in-

formation about occupational trends, and (4) skill in using dependable methods of collecting information about occupations. The activities in which the student engages for the purpose of enlarging her fund of occupational information are wide reading of books, pamphlets, and periodicals; interviews with experts in the occupational area or areas under consideration; vacation work experience, remunerative or nonremunerative; extra-class activities which provide types of work experience; interviews with the occupational guidance counselor, etc. These gains in knowledge and skill enable the student to consider an occupational or educational goal from the third realistic viewpoint as it relates to the first consideration, social needs.

#### *Matching of Self and Occupation*

When the student gathers together all the information gained about an occupation or occupations and constructs a mental "credit-debit" sheet, she is matching herself and her chosen occupation in light of social needs. She recognizes her particular interests, personality traits, and abilities which the investigated occupation does or does not challenge or stimulate. Likewise, the student recognizes the demands of the occupation which she can or cannot meet in terms of her interests, personality traits, and abilities. The "matching" step oc-

<sup>6</sup> *A Design for General Education*, p. 47. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series 1—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 18. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

curs when the student begins to think reflectively about what she has learned and when she takes steps to review and clarify her thinking with her occupational guidance counselor and her parents. To have a reservoir of knowledge about self and about occupations is not enough! The student must view her knowledge of self in light of her knowledge of occupations, relating them both to social needs, as a fourth realistic activity.

#### *Program of Planned Action*

Nor is it enough for students to have progressed through the first four steps of the process. The fund of information and the kinds of attitudes accumulated in Steps 1, 2, and 3 and compared in Step 4 must result in some kind of action if the occupational or educational goal is truly formulated. Students participating in the class discussion and in interviews with the counselor learn of the various kinds of action which will "spark" their planning. Such action might consist of: summer work experience; study of programs of advanced education in out standing four-year schools or specialized schools; part-time work during the school year, remunerative or nonremunerative; further interviewing with experts in the occupational area; and further reading in the field. A student's occupational and educational goals approach realism when action is

planned and carried out after the student has acquired a background of knowledge, skill, and attitudes concerning social needs, information about self, information about occupations, and matching of self and occupations.

#### *Case Study Example*

For purposes of illustration, a case, typical of a student enrolled in the occupational planning class, is cited. Coming from a small city high school, Sarah entered college with no occupational or educational goals. On her general information sheet, in answer to the question concerning occupational interests and educational plans, she stated, "I have none." Her statement about the classes in high school which were of interest to her was, "I like literature, history, and language."

ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL NEEDS.—In the occupational planning class she began to consider social needs through special reading. She discovered that there was a great need for persons who would work with young people, instructing, guiding, and directing them in leisure-time activities. Such types of work, she found, might be teaching, guidance, recreation and playground work, library work, and others. Sarah decided to investigate two of the occupations falling under this "needs" category.

SELF-ANALYSIS.—Since another part of her investigation included



analysis of self, Sarah heard in her occupational planning class a discussion of the general test battery. In series of interviews with her counselor, she discovered the following:

**INTERESTS.**—Her measured interests were in the areas of computational, literary, and clerical activities. She had a degree of interest in the service area. She had no interests in persuasive, scientific, mechanical, artistic, or musical areas.

**PERSONALITY.**—The results in the Personal Audit showed Sarah to be highly discriminative, patient, objective, and self-confident. She was better than average in her scores on open-mindedness, responsiveness, flexibility, and decisiveness. She was lowest in sociability.

**ABILITIES AND APTITUDES.**—The results in the verbal area were high (American Council); high in ability to judge design on a flat surface (Minnesota Paper Form Board); high in checking and copying (Chicago Clerical Test); high in reading speed and comprehension (Cooperative English Test). Sarah was average in nonverbal abilities (American Council), spelling, memory for oral instructions, and arithmetical reasoning (Chicago Clerical Test). Her score in simple arithmetic was very low (Chicago Clerical Test).

In conferring with her counselor, Sarah confirmed the results on the test profile with one exception: she felt her ability in spelling was better than average. She was unaware of her ability in judging design but thought that it was something which she might investigate soon.

Sarah expressed the wish to "do something" about her score in sociability, realizing that she did not care to mix with people but that she found more satisfaction in dealing with books and other leisure-time pursuits. Sarah explained to the counselor that her parents were highly sociable people, who had a great deal of confidence in their social and professional activities. She said that she felt unable to "compete" with them and so preferred not to attend many social functions or to build a wide circle of friends.

**OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS.**—Sarah began to consider occupations which fell in the four areas—literary, clerical, computational, and service—wherein she had rated at least an average interest. After looking at numbers of occupations open to women in the four areas and the occupational trends for each, she narrowed the field of her study to teaching and library work, both of which would meet a social need in the sense that each dealt with guidance and direction of young people. She studied both occupations from the point of view of (1) description of the work, (2) demand, (3) salary, (4) age requirement, (5) place of employment, (6) need for specialized training, (7) outstanding educational institutions offering such training, and (8) advantages and disadvantages of the work. This type of study was achieved through

reading in the textbook, *Occupational Planning for College Women*; reading books, pamphlets, and periodicals in the occupational guidance library;<sup>7</sup> and interviewing experts in the teaching and library fields, both on campus and in her home town at vacation time.

**MATCHING OF SELF AND OCCUPATIONS.**—In comparing the information that she had acquired about herself and about the two fields investigated, Sarah recognized that her interests in the literary, clerical, and service fields would be helpful in both teaching and library work. As for personality traits, she recognized that her lack of sociability would be a handicap to her in both occupations. The teachers and librarians she admired were, in every case, highly personable and sociable persons. This realization gave her motivation to improve her social abilities by taking on extra-class activities, participating in residence-hall activities, and participating in class discussions. Her high scores in patience, discrimination, objectivity, and self-confidence seemed to her to be helpful in both occupations. Sarah thought the abilities and aptitudes which would assist her both in library work and in teaching were her high verbal abilities and the high scores

in reading speed and comprehension. Her abilities in checking and copying and in her judgment of design seemed to be particularly helpful in a library career. Viewing the "credit-debit" rating which she prepared for herself after class discussion and an interview with the counselor, Sarah decided on a course of action for the second semester of her first year.

**PROGRAM OF PLANNED ACTION.**—Sarah decided (1) to send for catalogues of several outstanding educational institutions, (2) to study the program offerings of these schools in light of her interest in library work, and (3) to talk with the college librarian about part-time work during the second semester in order to get firsthand experience in library activities.

After talking with the head librarian of the general library and with two of her assistants, Sarah was hired as a student assistant for the second semester. She completed a semester of part-time work and applied for work at the main desk for her second year in school. She thought the duties in serving students and faculty at the main desk would help to increase her ability to deal with various kinds of people and thus contribute to her self-confidence and sociability. In a casual conversation with her occupational guidance counselor during her second year, Sarah remarked that she was pleased with the work

<sup>7</sup> B. Lamar Johnson, Eloise Lindstrom, and Others, *The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1948.

at the main circulation desk and was especially happy that her interest in serving people had increased. She was taking a more active part in campus life and, at the same time, maintaining a top academic record.

In summary, Sarah, who came to Stephens College with little or no idea about occupational or educational goals, in the course of a semester discovered an interest in the occupation of librarian. This discovery may be termed real progress toward an occupational and educational goal. Presumably, her second semester allowed her more opportunity for investigation of this interest and other interests through the work experience, further reading, interviewing of professionals, and so on. Without stigma she may, in the course of another year or two, discard the idea of librarianship and embark

upon the investigation of some other field, for example, secretaryship, social work, or Y.W.C.A. In any event, the time that Sarah spent in learning a *five-step process* gave her a method which can be relied on in carrying on any occupational investigation throughout the rest of her life.

The case study may serve to illustrate the responsibility of the vocational counselor "... to teach [students] how to choose a vocation ... to help them to grow up, to find themselves, to discover their possibilities, and to adjust themselves to the necessities of our civilization."<sup>8</sup>

As educator and guide to students in their developing of self-responsibility, the counselor has a task which is exceedingly complex—but increasingly challenging!

<sup>8</sup> Fritz Künkel and Ruth Gardner, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

## *Junior-College Teacher Salaries in 1947-48*

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

AND

LEONARD V. KOOS

THIS is the second in a series of articles reporting the findings of a study of policies and practices in determining salaries of junior-college teachers and the actual salaries paid in 1947-48. The investigation was made by the Research Office of the American Association of Junior Colleges through joint sponsorship of its Committees on Administrative Problems and Teacher Preparation. The investigation was completed in February, 1948. The first portion of the project was reported in the November issue of the *Junior College Journal* in an article entitled "Junior-College Teacher Salaries: Policies and Practices." This second article is concerned with the actual salaries paid in the junior colleges co-operating in this aspect of the study.

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### *Gathering and Compiling the Information*

To gather the needed information on current salaries, a blank frequency distribution was drawn up and included as Part II of the inquiry form which was circulated in the late months of 1947 to approximately 560 junior colleges throughout the nation. The frequency distribution was made up of \$100 intervals from the lower limit, designated as "less than \$1,000," upward as far as was necessary to include the highest salary paid. Respondents were asked to fill in the number of full-time teachers being paid salaries falling between the limits of each of the intervals. Usable distributions of teacher salaries were obtained from 284 junior colleges.

Preceding the intervals of salary payments, the inquiry form directed that the salaries of full-time teachers only were to be reported. The term "full-time teachers" was defined to mean persons carrying what was considered a full teaching load in the institution for which the report was being made. The directions stipulated, further, that the

teaching load might be all at the junior-college level or at both college and high-school levels. Department heads or chairmen were to be included in the distribution only if they carried full teaching loads. Finally, it was explained that, in institutions where some teachers received part of their pay in board and/or room or other living quarters, amounts equal to the fair cash value of these perquisites was to be added to the annual cash payments.

From the usable distributions of salaries being paid in individual institutions, summary tabulations were made according to size, type of control, and geographic location of the colleges from which returns were received. Comparative measures were then computed for each of the several classifications of institutions. Four categories according to the number of students enrolled were established: (1) colleges enrolling fewer than 300 students; (2) colleges with enrolments of 300-599; (3) institutions enrolling 600-999 students; and (4) colleges having 1,000 or more students. With respect to type of control, institutions classified in the "Junior College Directory, 1947" as local or district-controlled were grouped together in a category termed "local and district"; those classified as state institutions were kept in a group under the same term; and all institutions operating under non-

public auspices were categorized as "private" junior colleges. For comparative purposes based on geographic location, four sectional classifications were determined: (1) eastern, including the New England and the Middle Atlantic states; (2) southern, including the South Atlantic, the South East Central, and the South West Central states; (3) central, including the North East Central and the North West Central states; and (4) western, including the Mountain and the Pacific states.

#### *Salaries by Region and Type of Control*

A compact picture of salaries being paid junior-college teachers in the various sections of the nation by institutions of different types of control is provided in Table 1. These data include the lowest salary (as indicated by the interval in which it was reported), the quartile points, the median, and the highest salary in each of the several distributions of annual salaries on which the table is based.

From the totals at the bottom of Table 1 it is seen that classroom teachers in the total number of junior colleges reached in this study were being paid salaries which range from less than \$1,000 annually to amounts falling between \$6,800 and \$6,900 a year. For the entire sample of 7,320 teachers, the median annual salary received is \$3,316. The median salaries paid in



TABLE 1.—MEDIAN, QUANTILES, AND INTER-INTERVAL RANGE IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN 284 JUNIOR COLLEGES, 1947-48, BY REGION AND TYPE OF CONTROL

Region and Type of Control	Number of Colleges	Number of Teachers	Lowest*	Lower Quartile	Median	Upper Quartile	Highest†
<b>Eastern:</b>							
Local and district .....	7	97	\$ 1,950	\$3,542	\$3,983	\$4,289	\$5,450
State .....	5	178	2,450	3,464	3,712	4,110	5,250
Private .....	38	849	1,250	2,582	3,054	3,507	6,850
All .....	50	1,124	\$ 1,250	\$2,717	\$3,328	\$3,753	\$6,850
<b>Southern:</b>							
Local and district .....	27	569	\$-1,000	\$2,444	\$2,856	\$3,219	\$5,050
State .....	8	231	1,950	2,604	2,778	3,091	4,850
Private .....	53	881	-1,000	1,922	2,255	2,752	6,050
All .....	88	1,681	\$-1,000	\$2,100	\$2,548	\$3,062	\$6,050
<b>Central:</b>							
Local and district .....	50	1,225	\$ 1,350	\$2,770	\$3,215	\$3,846	\$5,050
State .....	3†	37	2,050	.....	.....	.....	4,250
Private .....	25	403	1,150	2,377	2,623	2,922	4,850
All .....	78	1,665	\$ 1,150	\$2,616	\$3,048	\$3,627	\$5,050
<b>Western:</b>							
Local and district .....	56	2,552	\$ 1,850	\$3,449	\$3,893	\$4,562	\$6,050
State .....	4	151	2,050	3,077	3,432	3,677	4,850
Private .....	8	147	1,850	2,465	2,819	3,369	4,550
All .....	68	2,850	\$ 1,850	\$3,368	\$3,795	\$4,456	\$6,050
<b>All regions:</b>							
Local and district .....	140	4,443	\$-1,000	\$3,063	\$3,603	\$4,222	\$6,050
State .....	20	597	1,950	2,763	3,359	3,677	5,250
Private .....	124	2,280	-1,000	2,217	2,631	3,210	6,850
All .....	284	7,320	\$-1,000	\$2,692	\$3,316	\$3,920	\$6,850

\* Figures reported in this column are midpoints of the lowest \$100 interval in which salaries were reported; \$-1,000 signifies an annual salary of less than \$1,000.

† Figures reported in the column are midpoints of the highest interval in which salaries were reported.

‡ Measures were not computed for classifications including fewer than 4 institutions and 50 instructors.

the total number of private, state, and local and district junior colleges respectively, are \$2,631, \$3,359, and \$3,603 a year.

When analyzed from a regional standpoint, the data in Table 1 show that the highest salaries were paid in the western and the eastern regions of the nation; the lowest, in the southern region. Specifically, it may be observed that the median salary paid in all institutions represented in the southern region is \$2,548. A median of \$3,048 was determined from the distribution of salaries paid by institutions of all types located in the central region, while the median salaries for the eastern and the western regions, respectively, are \$3,328 and \$3,795 a year. In all classifications of junior colleges shown in Table 1, the median salaries for institutions in the southern and the central regions fall below the median for the nation as a whole, whereas the median salaries shown for the eastern and the western regions are higher than that for the total sample of institutions included in the study.

One of the most interesting results appears in the comparison of salaries paid by junior colleges under different types of control. In every region of the nation, the highest median salaries are found among the local and district junior colleges, with the state and the private institutions following in that order. A

median salary of \$3,603 was reported by the local and district colleges over the nation—approximately \$250 higher than the median paid in state institutions and nearly \$1,000 more than the median for private junior colleges. Although considerable fluctuation in the amounts of these differences is observed from region to region, in no case is the order of the types of institutions altered.

Consideration of the quartile measures as well as the median salaries computed sharpens the contrast already noted. In every region of the nation, the lower quartile of the salaries paid in local and district junior colleges exceeds the median of those in private colleges and comes within \$350 of equaling the median salary paid by state institutions. In every region, also, the median salary in local and district schools exceeds the upper quartile of the salaries in private junior colleges. In no region is there a difference of more than \$250 between the median of local and district salaries and the upper quartile of salaries paid in state colleges.

#### *Salaries Paid and Size of Institution*

Perception of the relation between the size of enrolment of junior colleges and teachers' salaries is facilitated by the data presented in Table 2, which shows the median salaries in institutions of each

TABLE 2.—MEDIAN SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES, 1947-48, BY REGION, TYPE OF CONTROL, AND ENROLMENT

Region and Type of Control	Colleges Enrolling										All
	Fewer than 300		300-599		600-999		1,000 and More				
	Number of Colleges	Median Salary*	Number of Colleges	Median Salary*	Number of Colleges	Median Salary*	Number of Colleges	Median Salary*	Number of Colleges	Median Salary*	
Eastern:											
Local and district	5	\$3,929	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	\$3,983	
State	3	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	5	3,712	
Private	18	2,755	15	\$2,847	1	.....	.....	\$3,395	38	3,054	
All	26	\$3,121	18	\$3,010	2	.....	.....	\$3,395	50	\$3,328	
Southern:											
Local and district	12	\$2,690	8	\$2,736	6	\$2,979	.....	.....	27	\$2,856	
State	1	.....	4	2,743	2	.....	.....	.....	8	2,778	
Private	36	2,176	16	2,404	1	.....	.....	.....	53	2,255	
All	49	\$2,338	28	\$2,399	9	\$2,830	.....	.....	88	\$2,548	
Central:											
Local and district	29	\$2,795	10	\$3,466	6	\$3,671	.....	\$3,700	50	\$3,215	
State	2	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	
Private	18	2,660	5	2,593	2	.....	.....	.....	25	2,623	
All	49	\$2,753	16	\$3,143	8	\$3,426	.....	\$3,700	78	\$3,048	
Western:											
Local and district	20	\$3,531	8	\$3,647	11	\$3,448	.....	\$4,206	56	\$3,893	
State	2	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	3,432	
Private	4	.....	4	2,735	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	2,819	
All	26	\$3,473	13	\$3,368	11	\$3,448	.....	\$4,150	68	\$3,795	
All regions :											
Local and district	66	\$3,089	28	\$3,377	23	\$3,391	.....	\$4,067	140	\$3,603	
State	8	3,464	7	2,920	3	.....	.....	.....	20	3,359	
Private	76	2,473	40	2,600	4	2,733	.....	3,395	124	2,631	
All	150	\$2,840	75	\$3,001	30	\$3,367	.....	\$3,972	284	\$3,316	

\* Medians were not computed for classifications including fewer than 4 institutions and 50 instructors.

size operating under various types of control in the four regions. Additional measures, analogous to those reported in Table 1, were computed, but limitations of space preclude presenting and discussing them in this article.

In the lowest line of Table 2 it is seen that, when all types of colleges throughout the nation are considered as one group, there is a steady upward progression of the median salaries for each size category. Specifically, the median salaries in junior colleges with enrollments of fewer than 300, 300-599, 600-999, and 1,000 or more students are, respectively, \$2,840, \$3,001, \$3,367, and \$3,972.

Consideration of salaries reported for private junior colleges and local and district colleges, regardless of region, bears out the generalization that there is a positive relation between size of enrollment in institutions and amount of salary paid to full-time teachers. However, certain exceptions may be noted. One occurs in the western region, where the median salary in institutions with 600-999 students in the local and district schools is lower than that for both of the two smaller size categories. In this region, too, the median salary paid in all colleges of fewer than 300 students is higher than that for the next two larger classifications. Another exception occurs in the eastern region, when all types of

junior colleges are considered as one group. Here the institutions of fewer than 300 students have a higher median than do those enrolling from 300 to 599 students. The major generalization remains, however, that the measures of central tendency of salaries vary upward with the number of students enrolled.

#### *Comparison of 1947-48 with 1941-42*

A study in some respects similar to the one reported here was made for the year 1941-42 by Henry G. Badger, specialist in educational statistics in the United States Office of Education, and Walter C. Eells.<sup>1</sup> Comparison of some of the data gathered in 1941-42 and those compiled for this report enables portrayal of significant trends in salaries of junior-college teachers. Badger and Eells's data on salaries and those collected by the Research Office of the American Association of Junior Colleges are compared in Table 3. To give the comparison as much validity as possible, the Research Office of the Association used the same bases for grouping information as had been used in the 1941-42 investigation.

The figures shown in Table 3 reveal that, over the six-year period

<sup>1</sup> Henry G. Badger and Walter C. Eells, "Junior College Salaries in 1941-1942," *Junior College Journal*, XV (April, 1945), 346-58.

TABLE 3.—COMPARISON OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER SALARIES, 1941-42 AND 1947-48, BY TYPE OF CONTROL AND ENROLLMENT

Type of Control and Enrollment	1941-42*					1947-48				
	Number of Colleges	Number of Teachers	Lower Quartile	Median	Upper Quartile	Number of Colleges	Number of Teachers	Lower Quartile	Median	Upper Quartile
Public:										
Fewer than 300 .....	56	610	\$1,461	\$1,805	\$2,196	74	1,181	\$2,694	\$3,143	\$3,621
300-599 .....	38	614	1,644	1,937	2,059	35	889	2,827	3,287	3,784
600-999 .....	11	217	1,754	2,278	2,686	26	978	2,995	3,411	3,727
1,000 and over .....	26	1,624	2,398	2,883	3,193	25	1,992	3,558	4,027	4,725
All .....	131	3,065	\$1,893	\$2,395	\$3,005	160	5,040	\$3,040	\$3,556	\$4,127
Private:										
Fewer than 300 .....	74	994	\$1,183	\$1,522	\$1,950	76	997	\$2,009	\$2,473	\$3,009
300-599 .....	18	432	1,176	1,497	1,843	40	950	2,295	2,600	3,090
600-999 .....	2	29	1,563	1,925	2,687	4	120	2,400	2,733	3,100
1,000 and over .....	2	226	1,708	2,060	2,331	4	213	3,314	3,395	3,798
All .....	96	1,681	\$1,224	\$1,587	\$2,009	124	2,280	\$2,217	\$2,631	\$3,210
Total:†										
Fewer than 300 .....	130	1,604	\$1,367	\$1,631	\$2,074	150	2,178	\$2,385	\$2,840	\$3,427
300-599 .....	56	1,046	1,423	1,777	2,152	75	1,839	2,488	3,001	3,332
600-999 .....	13	246	1,728	2,243	2,686	30	1,098	2,867	3,367	3,768
1,000 and over .....	28	1,850	2,288	2,787	3,173	29	2,205	3,482	3,972	4,654
All .....	227	4,746	\$1,565	\$2,095	\$2,715	284	7,320	\$2,692	\$3,316	\$3,920

\* These data are taken from Henry G. Badger and Walter C. Eells, *op. cit.*, p. 353.

† Measures for 1941-42 totals were computed from the distributions given by Badger and Eells.



depicted, sizeable increases have been made in the salaries paid. In the total group of public institutions, for example, comparison of the lower quartile, median, and upper quartile measures for 1941-42 and for 1947-48 shows an increase of \$1,147, \$1,161, and \$1,122 for each of these measures, respectively. Similarly, increases of \$993, \$1,044, and \$1,201, respectively, are seen in the lower quartile, median, and upper quartile measures of salaries paid in the total group of private junior colleges between the years 1941-42 and 1947-48. Corresponding increases for all junior colleges, regardless of size or type of control, are \$1,127, \$1,221, and \$1,205. It may be said, therefore, that the salaries paid in 1947-48 are from approximately \$1,000 to \$1,200 higher than those paid in 1941-42.

Considerable fluctuation from the differences observed for the total groups of public and private colleges is disclosed by the measures reported for the institutions of different sizes. From this finer breakdown it may be observed that the increases in the several measures range from approximately \$1,000 to \$1,700 in the public colleges, from about \$800 to \$1,600 in the private institutions, and from approximately \$1,000 to nearly \$1,500 in all colleges of different sizes.

More meaning is given to the study of trends when the increases

are converted to percentages. These percentages are shown in Table 4. Looking first at those for the public colleges, it is noted that the percentages of increase in salaries become progressively smaller as the

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGES OF INCREASE IN MEDIAN SALARIES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS FROM 1941-42 TO 1947-48, BY SIZE AND TYPE OF CONTROL OF INSTITUTIONS

<i>Type of Control and Enrolment</i>	<i>Percentage of Increase</i>
Public:	
Fewer than 300 .....	74.1
300-599 .....	69.7
600-999 .....	49.7
1,000 and over .....	39.7
All .....	48.5
Private:	
Fewer than 300 .....	62.5
300-599 .....	73.7
600-999 .....	42.0
1,000 and over .....	64.8
All .....	65.8
Total:	
Fewer than 300 .....	74.1
300-599 .....	68.9
600-999 .....	50.1
1,000 and over .....	42.5
All .....	58.3

size of institution increases. The table also indicates an increase of 48.5 per cent in the median salary paid in the total group of public colleges. The proportionate increases among private junior colleges do not follow the orderly pattern that is observed elsewhere in Table 4, and for all private institutions the fraction of increase determined is almost two-thirds—a notably higher proportion than the increase of approximately a half

found for the total group of public junior colleges.

A clearly discernible relationship between size of institution and proportion of salary increase is seen in the lowest group of percentages shown in Table 4 for each of the size categories. The table also shows that, for the total group of junior colleges, regardless of size or type of control, teacher salaries increased 58.3 per cent between 1941-42 and 1947-48. On the basis of these facts, it may be concluded that the increases in salary since 1941-42 have been, to a degree, inversely proportional to the size of the junior colleges. This is accentuated by the fact that the smaller colleges were paying much less than the larger institutions in 1941-42: thus equal amounts of increases show up as higher percentages for the smaller colleges represented in Table 4.

Significance of the study of trends in salaries is increased by comparison of the proportions of salary increases over the years with the change in the cost of living during the same period. When this comparison is made, it is found that the increase in teacher salaries over the increase in cost of living is, on the average, rather slight. From the data presented in this study of trends, it was noted that the salaries of junior-college teachers had increased 48.5 per cent in public institutions, 65.8 per cent in private colleges, and 58.3 per cent in

the total group of junior colleges over the nation. During the comparable period between December 15, 1941, and October 15, 1947, data published in the *Monthly Labor Review* show that the cost of living for the nation as a whole increased 48.2 per cent.<sup>2</sup> It is evident, then, that the increases which junior-college teachers in public institutions have received in salary since 1941-42 have barely kept pace with the rising cost of living since that pre-war date. In the case of the private junior colleges, a margin of approximately 18 percentage points is found in favor of the increases in salaries over the increases in cost of living; for the total group of junior colleges included in the study, this margin is approximately 10 percentage points. The equity of the increases observed in all these instances hinges on the question whether the salaries paid in 1941-42 were, in fact, adequate for the cost-of-living conditions which obtained at that time. That the salaries which were being paid in public junior colleges in 1941-42 were actually adequate in terms of cost of living at that time is questionable, and, in view of the data shown in Table 3, the assumption is even more debatable with respect to the salaries which were then being paid in the private institutions.

<sup>2</sup> "Current Labor Statistics: Prices and Cost of Living," *Monthly Labor Review*, LXVI (January, 1948), 114-23.

*Concluding Observations and  
Queries*

Several points of general significance emerge from this analysis of salaries paid junior-college teachers. These can be reviewed topically in the order in which they have appeared in this discussion.

It was observed that annual payments made to full-time teachers ranged widely from amounts less than \$1,000 to figures approaching \$6,900. With respect to average annual salaries paid, it was found that in all regions of the nation the highest salaries paid were those in local and district colleges, with the state and private institutions following in that order. Considerable regional variation in average annual salaries paid also was apparent. The highest average payments found were those reported for colleges in the western and the eastern regions; the lowest, those reported for institutions in the central and the southern areas of the nation. A direct relationship was noted between student enrolment and the salaries paid. For the total number of junior colleges taking part in the study, the median annual salary determined is \$3,316.

Comparison of the data gathered in this study with those compiled in a similar study for the year 1941-42 disclosed that salaries have increased materially during the period between that year and 1947-48, the percentages of increase being, to a degree, inversely proportional

to the size of the institutions represented in the investigation. When compared to changes in cost of living over a comparable period, however, the proportions of increase in teacher salaries in public institutions, whatever may have been the adequacy or the inadequacy of the salaries in 1941-42, were found barely to have kept pace with increased living costs. The increases in private colleges, in which salaries were lower than in public institutions in both 1941-42 and 1947-48, suggest an appreciable proportionate gain on the cost of living.

The information reported in this article should be of much import to persons interested in the quality of instruction provided in junior colleges. Among troublesome questions persisting after reading the report are: How much attraction do the current salaries hold for competent persons who should be drawn into, and kept in, the junior-college field? Is this attraction, coupled with other motivating considerations, sufficiently strong to insure development of excellent teaching staffs in competition with other professional, industrial, and commercial pursuits for which prospective junior-college teachers may be fitted? Investigative effort seeking the answers to these questions may be deemed the next desirable service which might be rendered by the American Association of Junior Colleges and its Research and Service Committees.

## *An Experiment in Group Guidance for Freshmen*

KENNETH C. MACKAY  
AND  
KENNETH W. IVERSEN

A FRESHMAN's lot is not a happy one. Usually without any premonitory warnings, he finds himself, that unforgettable first day of college, in a new world peopled with that strange genus called "college instructors" speaking another language. So vividly do most of us recall the mystifying incertitudes of our first months in college that we have little difficulty in remembering their tribulations long years afterward. It might well have been a Freshman whom Housman described as "a stranger and afraid in a world [he] never made."

Junior colleges, more than other institutions of higher learning, are confronted with the problem of Freshman adjustment to college life, involving the necessarily rapid development of certain habits and attitudes needed for success in col-

lege which may even be a determining factor in life-achievement. The percentage of Freshmen in a two-year junior college is, by nature, much larger than that in a four-year institution. Usually a considerable majority of the student body in a junior college is enrolled in a first-year class.

Our Freshman orientation course—required of all matriculated first-year students—grew out of the perennial questions asked again and again by green-hatted and green-minded "frosh": "What is a good way to take notes?" "How much time should I spend on out-of-class assignments?" "What goes into a term paper?" "Why must an engineer take English comp?" "Where can I get material on the Federal Reserve Act?" The great avalanche of Freshman questions, revealing depths of intellectual curiosity and fertile fields for scholarship growth as well as ignorance of college methods and procedure, overwhelms the guidance staff, the instructor in the classroom, and even the upperclassman.

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Launched to fulfil a long-felt need, our orientation course was designed to utilize a systematic program of group guidance to pilot these tempest-tossed first-year people through the hitherto uncharted waters of the Freshman year, beset by all the dangerous reefs of faulty study habits; unlearned methods of learning; and dark, oracular terms and frames of reference inside the ivory tower. As we appraised the plight of the Freshman, we determined that this projected course in orientation should, at all times, be a program of helpful, practicable assistance, steering the neophyte toward success both in college and in life.

#### *Method of Building Course*

**AIMS AND OBJECTIVES.**—In formulating the aims and objectives of this course, a definite effort was made to keep them brief and realizable. They were built around the needs of college students and the outcomes desired by the college. They are:

1. To give the student an appreciation of what he can expect from college and what college expects from him.
2. To acquaint the student with skills and techniques required to do successful college work and to provide him with an opportunity to experience, at least once, a proved successful method.
3. To give the student a sense of security by offering a limited number of immediately applicable proved methods, rather than to

build in him a sense of confusion by an inspirational appeal.

4. To provide for as much student participation as possible. The assignments should not be ends in themselves but should be planned as means to enable the student to do better work in his other courses.
5. To help the student see the faculty's viewpoint and the faculty the viewpoint of the students.

**SELECTION OF ITEMS.**—An empirical approach was used in building the curriculum of the course. A list of items was selected on the basis of problems experienced in the past and outcomes desired from the course. The final units were selected by the Guidance Committee from this list. Because of the limitations of sixteen one-hour meetings, it was decided to confine the course to a few areas rather than to give cursory treatment to many. It was also decided to revise the course from year to year on the basis of the students' opinions of the most helpful units.

**METHODS AND MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION.**—The following areas are covered, two meetings being devoted to each:

- How to use the library
- How to write themes and term papers
- How to study more efficiently
- How to find time to study
- What factors are involved in a successful performance in college
- How to make notes
- How to prepare for and take examinations
- How to transfer and what is ahead in third and fourth college years



The textbook selected for the course is *Learning More by Effective Study*.<sup>1</sup> No attempt was made to correlate other references or to assign outside readings because it was felt that, with Freshmen, it is important to offer something definite rather than too much choice.

The emphasis in instruction was on class discussion and the application of a suggested technique to the students' work in other courses. Assignments were due on the last meeting devoted to a unit, and the students' experiences in applying the method to other courses were discussed at that time. Since assignments were due only every two weeks, no particular burden was placed on the students.

In order to pass the course it was necessary for each student to complete all the assignments. No attempt was made to evaluate the work qualitatively.

### *Evaluation*

Since the assignments constituted such an important part of the course, it seems natural that evaluation of the extent to which the aims and objectives of the course were realized should have its basis in consideration of these assignments. A more detailed account of a few of the assignments and the results experienced will help to point up

the efficacy of the approach used in this course.

In the assignment for the unit on preparing for and taking examinations, the students were asked to pair up so that each pair was taking at least one class in common. Each student made up an examination consisting of objective and essay-type questions in the subject agreed upon, complete with all necessary directions. Each member of the pair then took the examination prepared by his partner and wrote a criticism of it. The final step was for the examination maker to correct the examination and to write a criticism of the way in which his partner took the examination.

The intent here was to give students an appreciation of the problems confronting an instructor in making up an examination and to impress them with the desirability of preparing for an examination by going through the same steps necessary in making one. After completing this assignment, one girl voluntarily and jubilantly reported that she had used this method in studying for a botany examination and was amazed to find that she had anticipated every question and had been practicing the answers for a week before the examination. "Why, it's just like being given an advance copy of the examination," she exclaimed.

In the unit on making notes, each of the students evaluated each

<sup>1</sup> Charles and Dorothy M. Bird, *Learning More by Effective Study*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1945.

of his instructors for a week in terms of those things which have a bearing on the job of making notes. "Do his lectures follow a plan?" "Does he talk too loudly or too softly?" "Does he make frequent use of illustrations and examples?" "Do you know what to expect from day to day?" These were some of the questions to be answered.

While it was not the original intention to do so, some of the reactions were presented at a faculty meeting. This was done after discovering a definite pattern to the replies, in the hope that the report might provide the instructors with opportunity to appreciate some of the problems confronting students. Prominent complaints were:

Lectures were too long.

Some instructors refused to return and discuss quizzes.

Some instructors spoke too softly; others, too rapidly.

Lecturing was the sole method of instruction used.

Marks were based on one test per semester.

While, at the conclusion of these units, soft-spoken instructors undoubtedly still spoke softly and students still prepared for examinations with aspirins and "crib" notes, both students and faculty felt that they knew a little more about "how the other half lived."

In an effort to give an appreciation of opportunities and requirements lying ahead in the third and fourth years, visits were arranged

to various institutions specializing in the fields of the students' major interests. Interviews were arranged with key members of the faculty. They were also arranged with students doing successful work, and no faculty members were present. The hope was that, in a glorified "bull session" of this sort, frank questions could be asked and frank answers given.

In reply to the question, "What do you consider the most important course for an engineer in preparation for the requirements of the Junior and Senior years?" a group of engineering students were amazed to hear a Senior reply, "English composition"! In support of his statement he produced an enormous pile of laboratory reports. "These represent one semester's assignments in an engineering lab course. None of them is read, regardless of merit, if not written in acceptable English," was his warning. A respect for English composition was born which no amount of faculty urging could hope to duplicate.

It is, of course, difficult to render categorical judgment about the success of the plan at this still early date. Inasmuch as the entire program in orientation has been fashioned to *assist* students in subsequent years, both college and post-college years, manifestly the amount of immediate evidence upon which to score the value of the course is limited. Nevertheless,

those of us who have watched the development of the project are confident that its dividends will be both ample and enduring. Already we sense, in numerous individual experiences, testimony to the fruits that orientation is bearing. In one instance, a young man, after transferring to a four-year college, revisited our campus "to pick up that orientation text that helped me so much, for a couple of fellows who have never learned how to study." In another case, one of our own students who, for compelling schedule exigencies, had been permitted to by-pass the course in his Freshman year, came to us at the beginning of the next year to enrol in orientation. We learned that the favorable comments of his colleagues had con-

vinced him of the worth of the course.

Conceived on the major premise that it must stand or fall on its service to the student, orientation will take shape in accordance with the suggestions formed by discriminating, critical student reaction. It must never be allowed to stratify into unbending series of assignments out of touch with the constantly changing pattern of college life. Ever mindful of its prime responsibility to implement the college student with the tools and techniques which are necessary to achieve maximum social and intellectual development, this program in group guidance may help to prepare for better living in the free society which we cherish.

## *Initial Procedure in Establishing a Tool and Die Curriculum*

CHARLES E. GREENE AND LEON P. MINEAR

DURING World War II the Gardner-Denver Company, of Denver, manufacturers of hard-rock mining drills, experimented with the production of a cartridge that would pierce eight inches of tough metal plate. Their chief contribution was in reducing the cooling time of the heated cartridge from several days to a few hours, while maintaining the desired hardness. Many other industries in Denver manufacture tools which also require proper tempering. In one day one firm spent \$700 in the making of a product, a small piece of steel, only to find it worthless because of improper heat treating. It is not surprising, then, that these firms were glad to pay the junior college for the cost of a course in heat treating for their employees. The class readily filled up and will probably be offered again and again.

The story just told gives the cue to the methods being used in or-

ganizing curriculums for the Denver Junior College—the “functional approach,” it might be called. First, find and identify a real need; then, make those concerned see the need. Once this is done, there exists in the community a group that is willing and ready to sponsor the curriculum which must be built up to meet the need.

The difficulty comes in discovering the need, in meeting it, and in setting up a program of recruitment for students, unless an in-service program is intended. If the need is real and employers are convinced, no problem of employment follows. This is the ideal community-college program. Often the need fluctuates, or is dimly realized, or really does not exist at all.

Investigation of training needs in both business and industry showed that the tool and die trade had no assistance from any academic institution in preparing journeymen or subexecutives for the metal trades. The industrial co-ordinator of the Denver Junior College established a list of the community industries utilizing the serv-

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ices of tool and die makers. Preliminary visits were made to several of the largest plants to broach the idea of initiating a junior-college course for tool and die makers and to line up the contacts which should be made with other plants. Visits were made to several dozen firms, and discussions were held with key men representing both management and labor.

The idea of junior-college training in the tool and die trade was new, and some discussion was required before it was agreed that such training was desirable and feasible. As a result of a job analysis of the tool and die trade, a breakdown of the needed areas of training was made. A discussion of these areas with the industry representatives indicated an immediate need for training in the heat treating of metals.

At this point in the procedure, several representatives of the junior college met with the executive secretary of the local union and discussed the entire plan. The union executive was enthusiastic and very helpful. Discussions were undertaken concerning the place which pre-service training might take in the existing apprentice program. The college was encouraged to undertake the class in heat treating as a start.

Members of an advisory committee for the entire tool and die industry were selected from both

labor and management. From management were selected three men who had shown the greatest interest during preliminary discussions. With the help of the local union, three men from labor were selected to be members of this committee. The initial meeting of the advisory committee was called as a dinner meeting, during which a general discussion of the needs of training in the tool and die industry was held. It was finally agreed that training in heat treating of metals was needed in the community. Members of the committee cited several examples of areas in which further dissemination of such knowledge would mean financial dividends for industry. The cost of such a course, the tuition involved, and other expenses necessary were found to be negligible when compared to the gain that the industry would feel from the knowledge of the men who might participate. Apparently, considerable material was being lost because of inadequate training of employees.

Suggestions for obtaining an instructor were received from the committee. The Denver Junior College could not furnish an instructor who had the necessary experience in this field. One firm, Gardner-Denver Company, had gone far beyond the others in experimenting and developing the needed techniques. It was felt that an instructor might be obtained from



them. Representatives of the Denver Junior College became acquainted with the men suggested, and a selection was made. The instructor was then appointed as a part-time member of the faculty and was placed on the pay roll several weeks before the opening of the class. During this time he worked on an outline of the curriculum.

The outline was submitted to several individual members of the advisory committee for comments. At a subsequent meeting of the advisory committee, the entire outline was discussed. Suggestions were made for improvement, and a final form was agreed on.

At this meeting a survey was made of the facilities which might be available for laboratory instruction. It was found that the University of Denver, the Emily Griffith Opportunity School, and the Gardner-Denver Company possessed equipment of value in such a course. Arrangements were made with all concerned to utilize the necessary facilities at certain periods.

After the course outlines had been approved, members of the advisory committee informed prospective students in their plants about the course. A letter was sent to an appropriate individual in each plant in the community. Personal contacts were renewed in the larger plants, and explanations of the program were made to individuals in-

terested. Advance registration was held by mail.

An interesting side light of the course was the offer of many plants to pay the tuition charges for students as a means of encouraging attendance. Several plants agreed to pay half of the tuition for their men.

At the first meeting of the class, slight adjustments of the outline were made in order to meet the interest of the particular group enrolled. The class meets for a three-hour session one night a week for thirteen weeks.

Plans were immediately undertaken for a follow-up of the graduates of the course. This follow-up study will be made after the students have had time to show evidences of improved ability in heat treating. The skill gained as a result of this course should become noticeable immediately in the individual plants in which the class members work. It is anticipated that word of the course will spread when increased efficiency becomes apparent. Plans for additional courses in this area are under way. The heat-treating class has thus been undertaken as an opening into the tool and die industry.

After sufficient classes have been established at the in-service training level, parallel courses for pre-service personnel will be undertaken. Gradually, as each course proves itself, a two year junior-college curriculum will evolve.

## *A Comprehensive Program of Extra-Class Activities for American Colleges*

MERLE PRUNTY

THE administrative policies of American colleges affecting out-of-class activities of students are, in the main, of three types. In some colleges, out-of-class activities are totally ignored; in others, simply tolerated; and then in others, openly embraced. The topic of this article carries the assumption that out-of-class programs for students should be cordially embraced by college authorities. But if so, for what reasons? Why a comprehensive program of extra-class activities? By what philosophies and concepts, principles, and evaluations are the educational contributions of the out-of-class activities to be justified?

Most college authorities would probably admit, rather readily, that the most important educational challenge of the college is to evolve a person: to be concerned with the nature and extent of the student's total experience as a preparation for both the immedi-

ate and the ultimate demands of living. If we acknowledge this tenet, then it would seem that the educative experience of students should include (1) guided practice in the use of democratic instruments, (2) the acquisition of socially utilitarian habits and precise skills, (3) the development of wholesome personal attitudes and appreciations, (4) the discovering and nurturing of worthy individual interests and needs, and (5) a growing acceptance of such a unifying frame of values and ideals as contribute to high-grade human living and enduring spiritual satisfactions.

As a means of motivating the foregoing perspectives in the educative experiences of students, an increasing number of college administrators have recognized, in the extra-class activities of their campuses, potential avenues for cultivating individual effectiveness and personal growth on the part of their students. A bi-polar concept of education has been accepted on these campuses by administrators who insist that fruitful

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educational values and vitalities are current in extra-class activities as well as in class activities; that extra-class activities are not to be left to wholly unregulated and spontaneous student impulses, completely dissociated from the class program, but that they should constitute an instructional area of the college co-ordinate with all other divisions of the curriculum and that mutually helpful and stimulating personal relationships should exist between faculty and students in directing both the in-class and the out-of-class life of the college.

#### *Controlling Philosophies*

Although the nature and the extent of extra-class activities vary in different colleges, the following are the controlling educational concepts and policies which operate in their administration most widely.

1. A college community is a normal, potential laboratory for giving students practice in the realistic responsibilities of group living, in community citizenship, and in developing desirable attitudes and habits of constructive, co-operative behavior.

2. The discovery of the diversified extra-class interests and needs of many students and the development of their varying abilities is preferred to concentration of attention on the activities of a selected few of recognized ability.

Activities should be so organized and administered as to provide the maximum number of students with participation opportunities and leadership responsibilities.

3. Student initiative in participation rather than faculty domination should be encouraged. However, since successful leadership is promoted by early orientation to responsibilities, orderly training and faculty counsel should always be available through sympathetic faculty sponsors who work officially with the students in advisory capacities.

4. In the planning and calendar-ing of extra-class activities, the importance of maintaining an aesthetic and wholesome environment, favorable to mental and physical health and wholesome campus morale, should be a guiding principle.

5. When an extra-class activity is of such a nature, or when it develops to the point, that systematic, competent, and continuous instruction is necessary to insure successful and skilful performance, it should be scheduled as a regular credit course of instruction.

6. It is the obligation of a college to encourage, promote, and direct worth-while extra-class activities as part of the student's total educational experience. A college should plan such necessary budget appropriations for extra-class activities as are required to insure desired results.

7. Extra-class programs should be continually evaluated in terms of their articulation with the total educational policy of a college and their contributions to individual student growth.

A satisfactory realization of the foregoing educational concepts in a college situation requires an articulated and integrated extra-class pattern which utilizes, to an uncommon degree, the educational opportunities inherent in the total experiences of the college. The potentialities of the college community can be translated into actualities of personal growth and enrichment.

#### *Motivating Principles*

If college administrators accept the foregoing philosophy for extra-class activities, by what means is the philosophy to be instrumented and by what practices is it to be translated into meaningful and vitalizing experiences for students? First, it would seem that college authorities should enunciate a clear-cut, comprehensive extra-class administrative policy and open the way in the structural organization of the college for such a policy to operate. Some colleges do this through a faculty grant of power to a campus-wide student organization.

At Stephens College the administration has incorporated its total extra-class program within the Ex-

tra-class Division, one of the major College divisions. This division, in turn, operates through the student Civic Association. Requirements for faculty leadership within the Extra-class Division are measured from the standpoint of training and experience, the same as within the other divisions of the College. In order to promote integration and co-ordination of the extra-class activities with other divisions of the College, the faculty head of the Extra-class Division is the sponsor of the Civic Association and a member of the major administrative councils of the College.

If a student organization is to become an effective channel for the management of its extra-class activities, it is important that the composition of the organization be such as to give representation to every student on the campus. Furthermore, the structure of the student organization should be such as to include every student organization on campus and flexible enough to permit annexation of new organizations. Other directive and controlling principles underlying the effective administration of extra-class activities are:

1. Both faculty and students must recognize the value of organized extra-class experience and give it adequate consideration in all advisory and counseling relationships.
2. Early selection of capable stu-

dent leaders and a program of systematic training in the responsibilities and opportunities of leadership is highly desirable. Using a manual which describes all leadership jobs and obtaining detailed reports of leaders for their successors are of invaluable help.

3. To insure continuity of effort, purpose, and understanding in the direction of student activities, a continuous program of orientation is necessary with respect to extra-class obligations and opportunities.

4. The annual college calendar should be planned to provide balance and to recognize the potential contributions of both in-class and out-of-class contributions.

5. Participation in extra-class activities should be determined and encouraged on the basis of individual interests, capacities, and growth needs.

6. Curricular "credit" toward graduation should be allowed for activities which require sustained and systematic instruction to insure competent performance.

7. All student-organization budgets must be administered in a businesslike fashion.

8. Distinctive achievements of students in extra-class enterprises are to be recognized in an equitable fashion commensurate with recognitions accorded unique academic performance.

9. Necessary space, equipment, and facilities must be provided for the administration of the extra-

class program and for the conduct of the varied activities involved.

10. Accurate and complete records should be kept by the extra-class division and by all its constituent units, and such records are to be used as a basis for self-evaluation and improvement.

### *Evaluation of Extra-Class Programs*

Any attempt to evaluate the extra-class life of a college must necessarily be made in light of the educational philosophy which underlies its organization and administration. Frequent reference has been made in foregoing statements to educative values which emanate from guided practice in non-class activities. However, if we are to appraise the outcomes of extra-class life from a personnel point of view, what criteria shall we apply to the administration of extra-class activities?

Arlyn Marks in 1940 set up six criteria for evaluation of the administration of personalized extra-class activities. These criteria are presented below, without the author's discussion of each.

1. Are there provisions for dealing systematically with all students on an individual basis with reference to their programs of extra-curriculum activities?

2. Are there provisions for guiding and assisting students in developing and maintaining a wholesome, salutary extra-curriculum activity program?

3. Are there provisions for supply-



ing the personnel staff with adequate, up-to-date information about the extra-curriculum activities which have been established on the campus?

4. Are there provisions for recurrently reviewing, evaluating, and where desirable affecting changes in the various extra-curriculum activities which exist on the campus?

5. Do established relationships make it possible for the personnel staff to work directly with, and expect the full co-operation of, all activity directors and leaders?

6. Are the personnel services which are concerned with extra-curriculum activities co-ordinated with other personnel services [of the college]?<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Arlyn Marks, *The Personnel Point of View and the Administration of Extracurricular Activities in Nine Universities*, pp. 8-10. Abstract of Doctor's thesis, Graduate School, University of Illinois, 1940.

Perhaps the most convincing evaluation, however, is one that cannot be reduced to statistics or expressed in terms of objective standards. It is based on continuous, year-by-year observation of student and faculty response to an expanded program of education which recognizes as educative all the potential sources of experience inherent in the college situation when such experience is placed under directive and recognized control. Under such a concept, the curriculum becomes the school, incorporating all aspects of school experience, and the school becomes a realistic laboratory for the development of personal competence in living.

## *Group Dynamics in Action*

CORNELIUS H. SIEMENS

INSPIRED by a discussion of the group-dynamics movement, as outlined by representatives of the National Education Association in Santa Barbara last year, I returned to my school determined to do something about it. If student government at Compton College, with its six thousand students, was to operate along democratic lines, then leaders would have to be trained and developed. Without capable leaders, student government is likely to devolve into autocratic or even dictatorial control either by a very few students or by the school administration itself. One of the reasons for the failure of democratic student government lies in the inability of students to work democratically in and with groups.

Some of the elements of group dynamics as it applies to student government are (1) that the members, and particularly the leaders, of any group understand and utilize proper procedures for organizing and conducting efficient group meetings, discussions, elections, and

other group activities; (2) that each organization member and leader develop a realization of the methods and techniques by which a group is influenced by an individual, and conversely; and (3) that the members and the leaders of a group develop an appreciation of, and the proper attitude toward, the means by which a group can work democratically toward the solution of common problems.

### *A Course in Group Dynamics*

It was felt that training along these lines is valuable and essential, not only for the improvement of student government, but for the deferred values that these abilities and practices will have for the students in their adult living. Training in group dynamics was deemed so important that a one-unit course entitled "Group Dynamics" was placed in the curriculum, with enrolment compulsory for every president of a student organization. Other students were encouraged to attend. The teacher of the course was sympathetic with the objectives of the class and had a rich background in English, speech, dramatics, and student activities.

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Fifty-two student leaders were enrolled, and the work in group dynamics at Compton College had its abrupt beginning.

The class work of the course was concentrated into the first part of the semester in order that the training should have an early effect on the groups governed by the students throughout the campus. One hour a week was devoted to lectures and assignments concerning parliamentary law, development of leadership qualities, group thinking and action, committee procedures, preparing the agenda, responsibilities of various officers, and similar problems and procedures of a democratic group in action.

A second class meeting each week was devoted to a laboratory session, in which practice in the various techniques and procedures was entered into by each class member. Each week an election was held to select a president, a secretary, and a parliamentarian, who were to preside at the following laboratory session. These weekly officers were responsible for making up an agenda, getting it mimeographed, and placing a copy into the hands of each student at the opening of the next laboratory session. Items on the agenda usually were concerned with school matters, oftentimes identical with those being discussed in the meetings of the student-body council. In fact, on several occasions, issues dis-

cussed as "practice" materials developed into live problems, which were submitted to the student-body council and, eventually, to the school's board of trustees for action.

One of these issues concerned the desirability of closing a street which crosses the campus, in order to provide better safety for the students. By a petition of most of the members of the group-dynamics class, the question was placed before the student council, which in turn requested the Board of Trustees to place the matter before the city council for action. The city council invited both the school board and the student leaders to the following city council meeting, where the street-closing problem was thrashed out. A joint committee was set up to study the problem and to present a feasible solution early in the school year of 1948-49. At the city-council meeting the students found themselves dealing with arguments and questions of the mayor, councilmen, taxpayers, and businessmen. The excellent showing made by these student leaders in a public hearing fraught with emotions and tensions was a credit to their training in group dynamics. All in all, it was the most practical and complete laboratory exercise in democratic procedure that we had during the semester—and it began as a practice exercise in a group-dynamics class.

Through the mixture of lectures, study, and laboratory practice, each student leader became familiar, at firsthand, with the basic elementary principles of conducting a group meeting and carrying out effectively democratic procedures for group action. It was our aim to develop the routine techniques to the point where they became automatic and habitual and were not, as they so often had been, the prime concern and stumbling block of the student leaders. Two meetings were devoted to questions, in which the student presidents considered problems of their groups. It was found that most of the difficulties were common to all groups and clubs, whether their aims were primarily social, service, political, religious, or athletic. The questions most frequently asked dealt with maintaining order, developing and holding interest in the club's program, handling guest speakers, building group morale, meeting problems resulting from the peculiarities of faculty sponsors (officiousness, lack of interest, and others), and collecting dues. The members were eager to have these problems discussed and solutions suggested.

#### *Evaluation of the Course*

Since the group-dynamics class was begun as an experiment and progressed on a trial-and-error basis, we awaited the evaluation

with interest. Three criteria were used to determine the effectiveness of the course, namely, the evaluation of the instructor, the evaluation placed on the work by the students, and evidence reflected in better student government.

The instructor's evaluation is given in a quotation from her own report:

When the class was started, students were a bit skeptical about giving up two hours a week for the first quarter for one unit of credit, which most of them did not need. However, after a few weeks, I received a petition asking that the course be continued through the next semester, as they had found it most stimulating and helpful. The faculty sponsors of many clubs spoke of the improved morale of their groups and attributed it to the greater feeling of security on the part of the presidents, who felt better trained to handle their jobs than they had before they took the course. Some of the students in the class stayed after class or gave up their luncheon hours to continue discussion or to consult the teacher on problems too delicate to bring up in front of the entire group. In fact, many of them have come back to the second quarter of the semester to consult on other problems of their various clubs.

Especially toward the end of the course, there was a fine spirit of mutual helpfulness and an entire absence of self-consciousness or of taking matters in a personal way. The teacher was called to task when she transgressed parliamentary law, and the whole atmosphere was one of relaxed and enjoyable learning. The director of the college was invited in for the final session, and we discussed the values and

the future of the course with him. I am sure the entire group felt as I did: group dynamics had been a profitable, valuable experience to be used now and in the future.

An evaluation by the students themselves was found in the final papers which they submitted at the end of the semester. In this paper they were asked to indicate, in general, how the course had served their needs as student leaders. More specifically, they were asked the following questions:

1. Have I improved the mechanical operations of our club meetings?
2. What improvements and projects have been completed by my club?
3. What qualifications does the leadership of my club require, and to what extent do I have these qualities?
4. How well have new members been trained to contribute to the objectives of the group?
5. How well have I served my group? What do they think of me? What does my faculty sponsor think of me?
6. What is the status of morale and attitude of my club?
7. How have we co-operated with and helped the school?
8. What advice do I have for the next president of my club?

Individual comments shed additional light on the values received through the course. Here are a few:

The course indicated to me that the school has a real interest in campus organizations.

It taught me the importance of group morale and group attitude, and some things to do about it.

It showed me the importance and necessity of a good up-to-date constitution.

It clearly outlined the responsibilities and qualifications required of a group leader.

The course helped me to put life into our club again.

The course taught me the importance of the time element in club meetings.

Learning how to manage and lead our club effectively has been the main factor in quadrupling our membership.

Lastly, the most valid evaluation comes from the actual use and demonstration of good group-dynamics principles as used by the student leaders in the clubs to which they belonged. A number of faculty sponsors of the student groups reported improved morale in their clubs, more efficient and effective meetings, and a greater feeling of security on the part of the student presidents. The faculty sponsors attributed the sudden and decided change to the attitudes and training received from the group-dynamics course.

The student council, which has legislative and executive control of student-body activities, conducted its business in a much more effective manner than before. Instead of the usual situation in which two or three "natural" leaders carry the council membership with them on any project that they propose, problems were presented ahead of



time on the mimeographed agenda, were studied by committees, and were thoroughly discussed at meetings.

The administrative advisers had less to do because the council accepted greater responsibilities and carried them to successful completion. The magnitude of these responsibilities is indicated by the fact that the council balanced the student-body budget after the various activities, including athletics, requested amounts totaling into six figures. With the requested expenditures exceeding estimated income, the "balancing" procedure involved tactful "giving and taking." This is the first year that we have felt the budget-making powers could be placed in the hands of student leaders.

Another result has been noted in the greater seriousness and the higher quality of the political campaigning during student-body elections. Many of the students from the group-dynamics class have successfully competed for more responsible positions.

With the coming semesters, the number of students benefiting from such training and experience will be increased. The result will be a bet-

ter quality of student leader and better democratic student government.

### *Plans for the Future*

Not only are we continuing the same program during the current year, but we hope to expand it to include, in addition to the president of each club, a second person designated by each group. This second person will then be in a position to act as an observer and a critic of group techniques. In many cases he will be appointed the parliamentarian. We plan also to record on tape several student-council meetings and to play back the proceedings for criticism by the group-dynamics class. The criticisms will then be presented to the council for its own improvement.

During the past year the school administration and the student leaders have noted decided improvement in student-government procedures and the leadership of more than fifty clubs and organizations at Compton College. It is reasonable to conclude that much of this improvement has been a result of training in the elements of group dynamics through an organized required course.

## *Junior-College World*

JESSE P. BOGUE

*Executive Secretary*

### COLLEGE FOR DEFICIENT STUDENTS

The establishment of an experimental "opportunity program" at New London Junior College in New London, Connecticut, for the benefit of students who need some review of high-school work before undertaking a full schedule of college courses is announced by President Tyrus Hillway.

The new program [he said] is essentially a combination of college and refresher subjects and is intended for students with minor deficiencies in entrance requirements. The plan has proved successful in the summer sessions of the institution, where it has been tried for the past two years.

Many students with ability to do college work are at present unable to secure admission because of failure to meet requirements in specific subject matter, especially mathematics and English. In the past their only hope was to return to preparatory schools for additional training and review. The new program will make it possible for them to start college work immediately, at the same time reviewing such high-school subjects as may be necessary.

By completing one summer session after the Freshman year a student in the opportunity program will be able to qualify for the regular second year of college work.

A substantial number of applicants have already expressed a desire for the special program, it was made known, and arrangements are now under way to accommodate additional applicants.

President Hillway emphasized that there is no intention of admitting students who have completed less than four years of high school, as some colleges have done in the past. All applicants must be high-school graduates or the equivalent and must be able to demonstrate ability to profit by college study. Thus, he said, the college is not actually lowering its admission requirements but is attempting to save a year's time for the student who is merely deficient in some phase of high-school preparation.

### WORK-STUDY STUDENTS EARN \$107,000

Students at the Walter Hervev Junior College, New York City, have earned a total of \$107,000 under the school's work-study curriculum since the college's inception in June, 1946, according to Donald E. Deyo, director. Average individual wages varied from \$32

to \$54 weekly. From September to December, 1947, students earned a total of \$32,331.

The college works on a co-operative plan of twelve weeks of school and twelve weeks of work. Alternating work-school programs continue for the length of the college course, which is two years. More than fifty New York and New Jersey firms participate in the plan.

#### VALLEY FORGE COLLEGE MAKES IMPROVEMENTS

When Valley Forge Military Junior College, Wayne, Pennsylvania, opened this fall, students were delighted with a number of improvements. The library was increased in size to care for all the stacks and to provide additional reading space. Hamilton Hall was enlarged with an additional 100 feet of space, so that 650 can be accommodated at one time. New quarters for the mess and house-keeping staff were completed; main and auxiliary roadways were resurfaced; a permanent stage was erected in the John S. Thomas Memorial Gymnasium; and a large outdoor swimming-pool was built during the summer for summer campers and cadets. Recently the College started a drive known as the Alumni Loyalty Fund. During the first two weeks nearly one thousand dollars were received. Valley Forge states that the surface for this fund has barely been

scratched and that it will be pushed "to make ourselves strong financially." It might be said that Valley Forge forges ahead!

#### GARDNER-WEBB FIVE-YEAR PROGRAM

During the five years ended on October 1 of this year, Gardner-Webb College, Boiling Springs, North Carolina, has made an unusual record. The sum of \$960,300 has been raised and spent on new buildings and for the beautification and general improvement of the campus. A total of eighteen buildings have been erected, nine permanent and nine temporary. Among these have been faculty duplex apartments, dormitory units, and a student center.

A recently completed campaign added \$250,000 to the endowment of the college. A grand total of \$1,210,300 in five years, with three-fourths of the amount raised within a radius of twenty miles of the campus, is a record not often made by junior colleges.

The enrolment of students has increased during the past five years by 426 per cent, the faculty by 100 per cent, and members holding advanced degrees by 500 per cent. The present year has the largest enrolment since the college was opened in 1928. The man chiefly responsible for the Gardner-Webb development is President P. L. Elliott. Gardner-Webb is one of the

four Baptist junior colleges in North Carolina.

#### NEW SOUTH TEXAS JUNIOR COLLEGE

On September 13 of this year the new South Texas Junior College opened its doors to both men and women in the \$2,500,000 Central Branch of the Houston Y.M.C.A. Standards have been set to conform with the requirements of the Texas Association of Colleges. Dr. C. C. Colvert, professor and consultant in junior-college education at the University of Texas, is quoted as saying that the home and facilities of South Texas are among the best he has seen. Boarding arrangements are available for young men in the Y.M.C.A. and for young women in the Y.W.C.A.

The aims and objectives of South Texas Junior College are set forth as follows:

To offer college-level curriculums for young men and women, adapted to their particular needs and interests.

To provide supplementary educational opportunities for employed persons who need new skills and knowledge to advance themselves.

To provide study courses that meet the educational and training demands of business and industry.

To provide liberal arts and general-education courses as a foundation for professional study.

To determine the best field of work for the individual and assist in selecting courses suitable to his interest, aptitudes, abilities, and resources.

To cultivate those ethical insights, moral qualities, and traits of personality essential to happy living.

#### EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF PHOENIX COLLEGE

The Office of Research Services of Phoenix College in Phoenix, Arizona, has formulated a challenging statement of the educational philosophy from a series of studies with the curriculum committee and the faculty. The Phoenix College credo is, in the writer's opinion, a good example of clear faculty thinking and a statement of objectives that may guide junior colleges in similar quests. It is commonly accepted that a clear statement of aims and purposes is one of the fundamental considerations in the development of a college. We take pleasure, therefore, in publishing the statements of the faculty of Phoenix College:

#### WHAT WE BELIEVE AT PHOENIX COLLEGE

Compiled from Comments by  
Faculty Members

*The student must be educated in and for democracy.*

We believe in the brotherhood of man, in the ethical principle of democracy.

We believe in a philosophy which recognizes the dignity and worth of the individual and allows him the utmost freedom in the attainment of self-realization so long as it is consonant with the collective good.

We believe that we must teach stu-

dents to be conscious of the group or social responsibility and yet capable of thinking independently.

We believe in our right to interpret matters in the light of a democratic way of life and the responsibilities therein.

We believe in equality of opportunity to share in the good things of civilization and make individual contribution to the limits of our capacity.

We believe that free enterprise and individual achievement build toward a healthy society.

We believe that the nation develops by developing its citizens.

We believe that the obstacles of the race with the atom bomb must be presented to youth as *their own* problems.

*The student must learn to profit from differences in other persons and to adjust to changing times.*

We believe that we should teach for a willingness to accept "different" ideas.

We believe that we should train for the ability to study all sides of a question.

We believe that we should "debunk" bigotry and superstition.

We believe that we should work for improvement of the ability of the student to think.

We believe that we must help the student to take his place successfully in the society of a changing and unchanging world.

*The student must learn to live fully.*

We believe that joy in living should be paramount in our educational efforts. We should help our students learn how to enjoy themselves as well as to enjoy others; how to enjoy their vocational as well as their avocational life.

We believe that we must make col-

lege experiences valuable to those who do not complete a degree-granting program.

We believe that we should strengthen specialized training by supporting it with a broad educational foundation.

We believe that we need to teach the student to make worth-while use of fragments of time; to entertain himself without constant external stimulation or "entertainment."

*The student must learn to understand himself and to plan his life-work in terms of that understanding.*

We believe that we should help students to understand themselves.

We believe that we must give students an opportunity to explore different areas, especially if they haven't decided on a definite course of study.

We believe that we must help each student to fit himself into his social environment.

We believe that his education should enable a student to fit into his environment vocationally according to his level of achievement.

We believe that we must help the individual to help himself as a responsible group member.

We believe that the student must be taught to live with himself as well as others.

BEST-PHRASED COMMENT.—A philosophy of restless intellectual activity tempered by human understanding.

LEAST CONTROVERSIAL COMMENT.—The student and his needs are more important than the curriculum or any other preconceived set of standards.

MOST CRYPTIC COMMENT.—We need to place emphasis on intangible values to which students may hold in an insecure world.

SUMMARY COMMENT.—We probably all agree on general objectives—but the means to reach them?



**BALTIMORE'S NEW HEADQUARTERS**

The Junior College of the University of Baltimore, under the leadership of Dr. Theodore H. Wilson, president, has acquired the former Baltimore Athletic Club Building at 1420 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland. The building has been completely remodeled, attractively decorated and furnished. There are fourteen additional classrooms for the college; a large student lounge; a cafeteria seating a hundred persons at one time; a spacious gymnasium; women's faculty lounge; men's faculty lounge; and offices for the president, the director of athletics, and the director of the school of business, industry, and management; and offices for the student publications.

Junior-college people who might be interested in acquiring buildings for remodeling would do well to stop off at Baltimore and see how well arrangements have been made, space utilized, and economies effected. The cost of a new building would probably have been many times greater than the amount required for this strategically located and strongly constructed building.

**SPEECH CORRECTION CLINIC**

The Gogebic Junior College at Ironwood, Michigan, is adding a new clinical service for its students who are in need of special correction in speech, it is announced by

Arthur E. Erickson, president. It is felt that this service meets a definite need, although such clinics are not common in junior colleges.

The Ironwood public schools have maintained a speech-correction program for five years. The initial, every-pupil screening for defective-speaking children by the local correctionist disclosed an incidence of almost 10 per cent of elementary enrolments. These children were re-examined by an expert in diagnosing speech defects and certified to the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, under whose supervision the program operates. In five years the incidence of defects has been reduced to nearly 2 per cent, generally considered the more or less irreducible minimum.

The speech correctionist who will work in the junior-college clinic is the same person who has successfully conducted the program for elementary- and high-school grades. She is Miss Gladys Simpson, fully certified by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and in good standing for clinical membership with the American Speech and Hearing Association. She has had thorough training at a number of the best universities.

The initial screening of junior-college students has been completed. Eight cases needing individual clinical help have been discovered, and these are scheduled

for correction study with Miss Simpson. She will devote three hours a week to the junior-college clinic. Cases range in type and severity from an unrepaired cleft-palate case, a severe stutterer, and a case with a spastic tongue, to the more usual articulatory defectives with lingual or lateral lisps. Students enrol for help on a voluntary basis and are most appreciative of the opportunity offered them for improvement in speech. The clinic gives no credit for work done and makes no charge for the service. Miss Simpson reports that she believes the prognosis of half the cases to be so hopeful that they can achieve fully corrected speech during the present year.

#### UTAH CONFERENCE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Weber College, Ogden, Utah, entertained the three-day conference on higher education for the state last September. The values derived from this conference are of continuing importance for Utah and as an example for other states. The president of the conference was Dr. Henry A. Dixon, president of Weber College and a member of the President's Commission on Higher Education. The conference included administrators, faculty personnel, and student representatives from all institutions of higher learning in the state. It was set up as a workshop, with general ses-

sions in the morning, departmental sessions in the afternoon, and a special fellowship dinner.

General sessions were devoted to a consideration of such subjects as "The Challenge to Liberal and Cultural Education," "Organization of an Expanding Higher Education," "Financing the Expanding Program of Higher Education," with Dr. Harry K. Newburn, president of the University of Oregon, as guest speaker. Other general-session topics dealt with re-examination of the aims and objectives of an expanding higher education and an evaluation of higher education as these aims and objectives applied to the community college.

Sectional meetings were concerned with faculty personnel, student personnel, public relations, adult education, curriculum, and methods. It is of interest that all junior and senior colleges and universities and the state department of education engaged in the three-day preregistration workshop on a co-operative basis.

#### WORK-STUDY IN EVANSTON

The Chamber of Commerce and the Community College at Evanston, Illinois, are co-operating in a work-study program. The plan offers young men and women an opportunity to complete two years of college or occupational studies while regularly employed 20-30 hours a week in local business or

industry. If desired, credits earned in the community college may be transferred to other schools.

An employment service, jointly sponsored by the Chamber of Commerce and the College, and a career guidance service are open to qualified applicants. Morning, afternoon, and evening classes have been organized. It is claimed that more than three hundred job possibilities under the work-study plan are available in the Evanston community. No comment is necessary; this practical plan of community co-operation speaks loudly for itself!

#### SANITATION TRAINING AT DENVER

The University of Denver and the Denver Junior College have entered an ambitious program for the training of sanitary engineers for the Rocky Mountain states, it was announced recently by Dr. Charles E. Greene, dean of the Denver Junior College, Denver, Colorado.

According to Dr. Greene, the rapidly developing program in the field of public health and the establishing of city and county health departments throughout the Rocky

Mountain region make it advisable to provide a training course for sanitarians at the University of Denver. At present there is a great scarcity of qualified personnel to fill positions in sanitation in health departments and to provide the needs of the various industries for control supervisors.

The University of Denver has organized two courses. One is a two-year course in the Junior College in sanitarian training, leading to an Associate Degree in Science; the other is a four-year course within the College of Arts and Sciences, leading to a B.S. degree, with a major in sanitation. The latter program gives full credit to premedical students, or to others with a background of basic sciences who wish to transfer to sanitary sciences. Both of these courses were offered in the fall quarter, 1948.

The co-ordinator of sanitary sciences is Milton M. Miller, for several years senior sanitarian and lieutenant colonel in charge of sanitation for the United States Public Health Service in seven western states, with headquarters in Denver.

## *From the Executive Secretary's Desk*

JESSE P. BOGUE

**N**EW Education versus the Old" is the title of a commencement address delivered last June at the high school in Hannibal, New York, by Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, New York state commissioner of education. Because there is a great deal of discussion on this subject in practically every section of the nation, we are quoting some paragraphs from Dr. Spaulding's address, with his special permission.

In our home community of Montgomery County, Maryland, a great deal of public agitation has been directed against the schools by a minority group with claims that the "fundamentals" of education have not been and are not being taught as they should be. One citizen in a public meeting went so far as to charge school officials with "subversive thinking." He has been called on by the state superintendent of public instruction to substantiate these serious charges. We know of similar agitations in other communities and, therefore, publish Dr. Spaulding's comments with the hope that ammunition may be supplied for your use.

Shortly after the first world war, two American educators undertook an interesting experiment.<sup>1</sup> They found a

complete set of examination papers—pupils' papers, teachers' corrections, and all—that had been given in the schools of Boston, Massachusetts, in 1854, six years before the Civil War. With minor adjustments, they gave these same examinations to post-World-War-I pupils in a number of American schools.

The twentieth-century pupils were obviously operating at a disadvantage. Many of the 1854 questions dealt with subject matter no longer taught, and outmoded words and phrases were used. In addition, the 1854 pupils taking the examination were described as "the flower of Boston schools." The modern-day pupils were unselected. Notwithstanding these odds, the twentieth-century pupils gave better and more correct answers to those old questions than did the pupils of 1854. Some of the questions and answers are very revealing.

For example, one of the things that perplexed the Boston School authorities in 1854 was that students could often read well a stanza of poetry and yet fail completely to understand the meaning of what they had read. In interpreting the meaning of what they read, the modern-day pupils were far ahead of their 1854 predecessors.

One of the questions asked was: "About what year was the embargo laid by President Jefferson, and when was nonintercourse substituted for it?"

<sup>1</sup> Otis William Caldwell, *Then and Now in Education, 1845-1923*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1924.

Do you know the answer? Well, a great many of those Boston youngsters in 1854 didn't know it either. However, a slightly larger percentage of the 1854 pupils than of the twentieth-century pupils answered it correctly. *But*, when the question "What is an embargo?" was asked—a question which clearly had to be answered correctly before a pupil could make any real sense out of his answer to the question about President Jefferson's embargo—the percentage of twentieth-century pupils answering correctly was many times greater than the percentage of 1854 students.

In questions of geography, the pupils of this century invariably did better than those of the past century. "Can you name the principal rivers in North America?" A majority of the 1854 pupils couldn't; a majority of the modern-day pupils could. On definitions of words, the pupils of this century also outshone their predecessors of seventy-five years before. "What does 'monotony' mean?" Some of the 1854 definitions included "a change of names," "thickheaded," "a plant," "the bones of animals." A "connoisseur" was defined as "one who writes funeral services," "a stranger from places unknown," "a governor," and "a name by which Frenchmen are called." The pupils of this century knew the meanings of these and other words better than did the pupils of the past century. And they could spell and figure better, too.

There is still more evidence. I take it you have all at least heard of Regents' examinations. The content of those examinations has changed somewhat since 1915, and perhaps some of the questions are easier than they used to be. Yet it is not without significance that the percentage of passing papers in 1947 was appreciably higher than in 1915: 84 per cent in 1947 as against 71

per cent in 1915. And, while the make-up of the examinations in each field has changed, the present-day pupils do better in *every* field. In some fields they do surprisingly better. In business and commercial subjects, for example, 83 per cent of the papers were passing in 1947, as against only 65 per cent in 1915. The number of passing papers in American history was at least 10 per cent greater last year than it was thirty-three years ago.

There is another kind of evidence, too, that shows the gains we have made in modern education. I have said that the methods of teaching have changed by placing the emphasis on learning through doing rather than learning by rote. We have pretty definite evidence that education which seeks not only to educate formally, but also to adapt the student to life in the world about him, stimulates his learning of the tools he must use—such as spelling, reading, and arithmetic. A little thought will show that this must be so. The mechanic's dexterity with a wrench comes not from a series of facts learned *about* a wrench, nor from theoretical exercises *with* the wrench, but from application of the wrench to his job of repairing machinery. The experience of the Navy during the last war illustrates the idea further. The Naval Air Corps found that student aviators did much better in subjects like mathematics, navigation, and electricity when they were studying them at the time they were actually flying and having to use the gadgets that are so important to the modern airplane.

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JUNIOR-COLLEGE STANDARDS are receiving a great deal of attention these days in regional associations and in many of the states. A special committee is at work in New Eng-



land, another in the Southern Association, and still another in the North Central. Standards for junior colleges have been rewritten in the state of Pennsylvania during the fall months of this year; Iowa's standards have been revised quite recently and may be obtained from Mr. J. P. Street, State Department of Education, Des Moines; and a number of other state standards are in various stages of completion. *American Junior Colleges*, edited by this writer and published by the American Council on Education, shows that a considerable number of states have no standards at all for junior colleges.

In July of this year, the Oklahoma State Junior College Committee consisting of M. A. Nash and T. G. Sexton, of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education; Standifer Keas and Jake Smart, of the State Department of Education; Superintendents O. D. Johns of Seminole, and Paul R. Taylor of El Reno; N. Conger and J. Andrew Holley, of Oklahoma A. and M. College; and C. E. Springer and F. A. Balyeat, of the University of Oklahoma, revised the standards and policies for the independent and municipal junior colleges of the state. We are publishing the standards and policies as information for discussions in circles where standards and policies for junior colleges are being considered:

1. A public municipal junior college

may be approved only in a system which has North Central accreditation for its high school.

2. A one-year junior college should offer at least thirty semester hours of approved college course work and a two-year college, at least sixty hours. Elective privilege should be provided.

3. (a) Graduation from an accredited high school, or the equivalent of such standing, should be required for admission to junior college. Not more than one unit deficiency should be permitted.

- (b) In meritorious cases a high-school Senior with not more than three solid subjects needed to graduate may also take a junior-college course for credit. Each case should be considered carefully on its own merits.

4. The curriculum should be so organized and administered as to achieve the philosophy and objectives of the junior college. In maintaining the standards required for the purpose of preparing for senior college, the terminal, vocational, and general-education functions of the junior college should not be overlooked or neglected.

5. Special adult-education courses may be provided through the junior college for the community. Such afternoon or evening classes must not be allowed to interfere with the credit course work of the junior college. Those enrolling in such courses must clearly understand that this work will probably not be accepted for advanced college standing.

6. (a) Library and laboratory services must be adequate for the courses offered. Care should be taken to have these services at the college level and as nearly as possible equal to provisions of senior college for these or similar courses.

- (b) The library should be carefully supervised by a competent library staff

to insure efficient arrangement and availability.

(c) College classrooms should have adequate and suitable facilities for the classes which use them.

7. (a) The minimum scholastic preparation of junior-college instructors should include graduation from an approved senior college or university and, in addition, one year of graduate study in a college or university of recognized standing. Instructors lacking this attainment should be specifically approved by the State Committee (or by the secretary of the committee) before assignment. A Master's degree in the teaching field should be considered the standard. Credit deficiencies temporarily permitted are expected to be removed as soon as possible through course work taken in the most available and satisfactory manner.

(b) Instructors should be assigned courses only in fields in which they have adequate preparation. All exceptions will be treated as individual cases.

(c) Part-time junior-college instructors who are assigned senior high school courses must hold appropriate Oklahoma high-school certificates.

(d) Junior-college instructors, especially those teaching part-time in the high school, need to be guarded against an excessive teaching load. More time must be allowed for the teaching of junior-college classes than for high-school classes.

8. (a) Junior-college work should be attempted only in those communities which are large enough in population and strong enough in financial ability to support such a program without sacrificing either the quality or the scope of the elementary or the junior and senior high school programs.

(b) Junior-college work should be offered only where there is positive need for it. In determining need, the near-

ness or availability of established colleges should be taken into consideration.

(c) No junior-college work should be offered with fewer than twenty-five regularly enrolled students for the one-year program or forty for the two-year program. *This is a bare minimum and usually not adequate for successful junior-college work.* No class or class section should be too small or too large for effective learning.

9. (a) The junior college shall provide and maintain a complete and accurate system of scholarship and personnel records, which shall include a record of high-school and college credit for each student in such form as to be preserved safely and used easily.

(b) Special and regular reports must be made carefully and promptly to the State Regents for Higher Education as provided and requested by them.

10. Each junior college will be visited and inspected regularly by members of the State Committee for Accreditation of Independent and Municipal Junior Colleges and one or more members of the faculty of a state senior college conveniently located.

11. (a) A school district or other agency or institution, contemplating the establishing of a junior college, should first be visited by a fact-finding committee to make a survey on behalf of the State Junior College Committee. The State Committee will review the facts and make recommendations as to the wisdom of the proposed establishment.

(b) Institutions resuming operation of a junior college after a period of discontinuance, should advise with the Junior College Committee, through its secretary, as to standards then expected to be met.

## Recent Writings

### Judging the New Books

EARL J. McGRATH and OTHERS,  
*Toward General Education*. New  
York: Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp.  
vii + 224. \$3.00.

TO THE fast-growing field of literature dealing with general education, Dean McGrath and nine of his colleagues at the State University of Iowa have added another volume. Unlike the institution-sponsored studies of Harvard, Columbia, Antioch, and Stephens, *Toward General Education* is not a report of a faculty. Neither does it have the official sanction of an official body. However, it merits careful reading because this detachment has given the authors a freedom from vested interest that could not have been acquired under other circumstances.

This book does not spend time bemoaning the fact that college administrators and professors meet many problems emanating from the inefficiency of high-school teaching, the limited cultural backgrounds of students, or the demand for college education by young people of low intellectual ability. *Toward General Education* recommends that we begin where we are and that our program be developed

around the needs of the students who make up our enrolment now. College administrators, curriculum committees, and faculties of senior colleges, junior colleges, and of high schools will obtain from the book many practical suggestions which can be adopted in whole or in part.

The book is organized in a more or less conventional manner, with introductory material on the overall philosophy of general education as it affects society in general and the individual in particular. The areas of general education which are discussed are (1) language and communication, (2) the natural sciences, (3) the social sciences, and (4) the humanities. A final chapter in the book attempts to appraise the status of the individual student. In the first two chapters the authors have set up the objectives of general education, and the succeeding chapters discuss ways in which the objectives may be achieved.

Although the phraseology may differ and the inferences may vary, *Toward General Education* presents little that is new in the conception of general education and its functions:

General education, as we conceive it, is that which prepares the young for the common life of their time and their kind. It includes the fund of knowledge and beliefs and the habits of language and thought which characterize and give stability to particular social groups. It is the unifying element of a culture. It prepares the student for a full and satisfying life as a member of a family, as a worker, as a citizen—an integrated and purposeful human being. It does not overlook differences in talent, interest, and purpose; nor does it attempt to form everyone in a single mental and spiritual mold [pp. 8-9].

The authors have stated six basic objectives of their program of general education, revolving around habits of effective communication, habits of reflection and reasoning, high moral standards, increased appreciation of beauty and a desire to create it, achievement of sound physical and mental health, and acceptance of the responsibilities of citizenship. Without equivocation Dean McGrath and his co-authors place high values on this type of general education.

In the chapter on "Language and Communication," the writers get down to brass tacks. They should be applauded for their recognition of what the secondary schools are doing in this field. They go a step further and state specifically what can reasonably be expected of the high schools. Seven areas of competence include (1) basic terminology; (2) both written and oral

expository discourse; (3) standard usage of the sentence; (4) mechanics of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling; (5) oral explanation; (6) reading comprehension; and (7) listening with concentration sufficient to pick out main points of expository discourse. Students who come to college without this background would be placed in non-credit courses in fundamentals of language and communication until they achieved the minimum standards. The college-level course proposed by the Iowa professors is not given anywhere at present. It would be both a content and a skill course. The contents would consist of the nature and history and operation of language.

In commenting on the nature of the teachers of the course in language and communication, the authors decry the practice of using graduate students as being unfair to both the Freshmen and the graduate student. This type of assistance is recommended only as an aid in the clinics. The book suggests a universal English program for the whole college. All faculty members would require students to communicate in standard English in all classes, and a senior examination would be used to determine that the students' proficiency at the time of graduation was at college level.

To meet the needs of general education in the natural-science



areas, *Toward General Education* recommends three separate courses. One of these courses is centered in the biological sciences and two in the physical sciences, with chemistry and geology in one and with mathematics, astronomy, and physics in the other. The student would be required to take only one of the physical-science courses. The authors are opposed to survey courses in science because these have been courses *about* science rather than *in* science. For the answer to the inclusion of laboratory work, the Iowa group favor an adequate number of demonstrations in lieu of laboratory experiments.

As the science course would demonstrate the application of intelligence to the harnessing and understanding of nature, the social-science course would emphasize analyzing and understanding society. The authors aim to apprise the student of the significance of a dynamic society, and they would have him recognize *disorganization* as an expected accompaniment of change. Because of time limitations, the social-science course would show the essential place of economics, sociology, and political science in the general-education program. To the question of properly trained teachers for such a course, the authors point out that, if our teachers are overspecialized to the extent that they are unable to instruct in this type of general-education

course, then we are in a sorry state of affairs.

The program of the Iowa professors in the field of the humanities would include required courses in history, philosophy, literature, and in fine arts (music, graphic and plastic arts, architecture, theater, cinema, or the dance). In history the content would center in Western civilization since the Renaissance, but the emphasis would be on the dominant movements, such as nationalism, capitalism, imperialism, proletarian movements, scientific progress, and the development of international co-operation. The literature course would not be just any course in that field. Conceiving of literature as human experience translated into words which are so selected and focused that they evoke in the reader an analogous experience, the course would include materials which are ordinarily susceptible of discussion, experience in analyzing the style of competent literary artists, a variety of pleasurable reading, and writing projects which would further reveal the magnificent capacities of the masters. In fine arts the student would be asked to choose two from the group, each of which would be for one semester. The course would include studio work, but it would go farther in that it would teach the history of the art and its place in the field.

Dean McGrath points the atten-



tion of the student of general education to the need for appraising the status of the individual student. Since the students are heterogeneous in background, differences must be recognized. Although grouping according to needs is not recognized as the cure-all, yet it does increase effectiveness. When a student receives a degree, it is based on many assumptions, the most significant of which centers in a minimum time factor. However, the authors advocate an adequate examination service to achieve the desired results.

*Toward General Education* offers little that is new to college administrators, but it is a refreshing approach to the question of general education. One of its outstanding merits is the opportunity for a dean or a curriculum committee to adopt small segments of the program at a time. It does not require a complete reorganization of the college program at one time. As in many other programs of general education, there is no mathematics or foreign-language requirement. This is

probably as it should be. The requirement of at least one nonverbal art with the instruction in this course geared to basic principles of other arts is commendable.

The authors do not assist us with the problem of how these requirements can be met in some of our more cramped curriculums such as engineering and pre-medical. Neither is there a clear-cut suggestion of the spread of general education throughout the entire four-year college program. It is naturally expected that some compromise would be required for the terminal student in a two-year junior college.

Dean McGrath and his co-authors have given us an extremely worth-while and practical approach that could function as a whole or in part in many of our liberal arts colleges. It offers much to college administrators in other types of institutions where serious curriculum revision is anticipated.

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## Selected References

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

CHARTERS, W. W. *The Research Service at Stephens College*. The Twenty-fifth Annual Report to the Faculty. Columbia, Missouri: Office of Publications, Stephens College, 1947. Pp. 29.

Reviews the history and development of the Research Service at Stephens College, its place and purpose in a forward-looking college program, and the principles which have guided its operation. The research program is conceived of as "the engineering function in education," and in it is drawn a clear distinction between what ought to be done and finding out how to do it. "An educational engineer is a man with a passion for carefully working out ideas and putting them into practice. The philosopher determines the objectives of education; the engineer works out the methods by which the objectives may be achieved."

With the commitment of Stephens College in 1921 to the ideal of a functional education for women, a concomitant decision emerged, namely, the development of an educational engineering service. "This was logical and necessary if the idea was to be translated into practice. If the students were to control their needs, perfect their activities, and develop their patterns of conduct, scores of questions needed to be answered." The problems of development of experimental attitudes on the part of the staff and the administrative status of the program are scanned, not historically, but for the purpose of spotlighting certain generic principles which are basic to the development of a program of self-study and appraisal intended to improve the services of an educational institution. For example, a decentralized organization is proposed as more advantageous for a program of institutional research than is a centralized arrangement. In a decentralized organization, a fundamental principle is that the director of research and the mem-

bers of his staff should not be given line administrative responsibilities but should act in an advisory capacity to administrators and instructional personnel, who initiate and carry through research projects in the institution.

If an evaluative note may be recorded in conclusion, it might be mentioned that, in addition to a portrayal of the educational pioneering activity at Stephens College, this document contains a quantity of useful and instructive information of much interest to persons concerned with development and maintenance of programs of in-service study and evaluation.

HASKEW, L. D. "Our Schools: There's a College in Your Future," *School Executive*, LXVII (August, 1948), 11-14.

Focuses attention on three questions resulting from the revolutionary expansion of popular demand for college training. In answer to the first, "Why is college education necessary?" Haskew states that we have developed a complicated economic and social structure and "just must have more highly trained people to keep it running." It seems, furthermore, that there is need for more "common" education for almost everybody—a fact considered to be even more significant than the training demands of a complex social order.

Against the backdrop of the question of necessity for college education, Haskew also discusses the factors abetting and those deterring expansion of educational opportunity at the college level. The wisdom of complete democratization of the level is questioned. Yet certain present restrictive conditions create a social waste and obvious injustice. It is for the removal of these conditions that "the President's Commission on Higher Education called upon you and me to see to it that economic, social, and racial barriers to col-

lege entrance are removed, and enunciated the principle that in American democracy higher education should be made available to all who can profit by it."

There arises a second question: "What kinds of colleges?" Here a warning note is sounded: "It seems to be the leading tendency for a college to become eclectic and attempt to do everything any other college or university is doing. Some institutions may find themselves spread rather thin." Attention at this point is turned to center on the community college as the answer to the question in point. "The fair-haired child of educators these days is a relatively new institution: the community college. The direct descendant of the junior college and the technical institute, this emerging institution is expected to do the lion's share of the new job of extending education through the fourteenth year for great numbers of youth. Junior colleges and other community-centered institutions are attracting unparalleled numbers of youth. Most observers credit most of them with doing a very good, and unique, job. They seem to have excellent promise of fulfilling a prime requirement for higher education these days—diversity within unity."

The final issue weighed is: "Who is going to pay the bill?" In this regard, "The picture seems to be about this: first, a slight increase in tuition and fee charges; second, a system of state scholarships to persons who deserve to attend college but who cannot pay the costs out of personal resources (these grants-in-aid may be spent by the student at the college of his choice); third, a system of federal government grants to states on an equalization basis, to assist in financing such scholarships; fourth, greatly increased direct appropriation by states to public higher institutions; fifth, expanded federal subventions of certain parts of the higher-education program."

Haskew closes with a word of caution and advice: "Don't think all educators are happy over the foregoing picture. And, don't think that any of these things are assured. About the only certain thing is that the people of this country want more and different higher education. We have a major challenge in

working out ways and means to satisfy that want."

HOLLEY, J. ANDREW. "The Junior College Library," *Oklahoma Junior College News Letter*, II (August, 1948), 3-7. (Norman, Oklahoma: Extension Division and the College of Education, University of Oklahoma.)

A paper presented before the junior-college conference held at the University of Oklahoma on July 14, 1948. From initial definition of a modern community-college library as one conceived of as a growing collection of recorded thought, selected to meet the needs and interests of particular students and organized and arranged to encourage and facilitate effective utilization by faculty, students, and citizens of the community, Holley goes on to review the problems confronting junior-college library personnel and the role of the library in the college and the community. Throughout the discussion well-documented references are made to current writings pertaining to library problems and practices, which afford a fund of source material for the interested reader.

The role of the library, it is recommended, should be under continuous study and evaluation by administrators, librarians, teachers, and students. "The passive, come-and-get-it role traditionally played by the library is giving way to a conception of the library as an aggressive teaching agency. In this new role, the status and functions of the librarians need intelligent revaluation. Is it the duty of the librarian to ask teachers what they need in the way of new teaching materials, to participate in determining what is taught?"

If the library is to serve as an aggressive teaching agency, the librarian must participate actively as a faculty member. More than this, the library should be set up as a laboratory where students are brought into daily contact with a rich variety of library materials, including not only books but recordings, films, and other teaching aids. The new conception of the library calls for a flexible arrangement, making materials and services readily accessible to students and faculty.

Conception of the library as a teaching agency necessitates increased consideration to wise selection and purchase of materials and equipment. Junior-college administrators and librarians should help promote the preparation of buying lists in the various fields. "But purchasing books and materials and placing them in the library is not guaranty of their use. Teachers must be stimulated to plan their courses around more than a single textbook placed in the hands of the students. Reasons must be sought for the non-circulation of worth-while references and library materials. It is in this respect that the services of qualified library staff pay such rich dividends."

It is estimated that a current shortage of approximately twenty thousand librarians exists in the United States. The problem of finding a qualified librarian is often complicated by the lack of adequate salary inducements. In the event administrators are unable to locate capable and trained librarians, it is suggested that they employ a person, preferably an experienced teacher, who has a broad understanding of books and students and that such a person be permitted and encouraged to take time off to obtain special library training. "In-service training programs for inexperienced library workers offers the most immediate procedure for securing better workers." It is finally maintained that, whatever the cost in time, effort, and money represented by a continuous program of library improvements, that cost is not too great if it results in a better service by the college to its students and the community.

KARR, HARRISON M. "Accreditation of Schools in California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (December, 1947), 496-99.

A digest of the need for clarification of issues involved in accreditation of California schools and the progress recently made toward fulfilling this need. A major contention of the article is that the problem of accreditation is most pressing in the field of the junior college. "Again and again, the junior colleges have encountered difficulties in their dealings with other institutions throughout the nation because of the lack of formal accredita-

tion." The lack of formal accreditation has been the catalytic agent which precipitated the present activity on the matter in the state. During the war, when the government was making contracts with colleges for certain training activities, California junior colleges were passed by. "Although that immediate problem was solved, a great many of the junior-college administrators felt that now was the time to solve the problem on a more permanent basis. . . . Hence, the movement for united action upon the whole question of accreditation."

A subcommittee of the California Committee for the Study of Education has been studying the problem since the spring of 1945. The results of the research of this committee are reported to be: (1) the majority of school administrators over the nation believe in school accreditation; (2) 90 per cent of the junior-college administrators in the country (and 87 per cent of those in California) believe that there are more benefits than detriments in accreditation. "Based upon the findings of the researchers, supplemented by its own judgment, the subcommittee recommended that there was a need for additional accreditation procedures within the state. . . . The majority, however, felt that the needs could best be met by the formation of a California accrediting association. They recommended that this association should have representation from all of the educational groups within the state, including the State Department of Education, the University, the junior-college administrators, the high-school administrators, the state-college administrators, and the private-school and college administrators."

After summarizing the deliberations of the Representative Council of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators and other groups that have considered the problem, the author concludes that these facts are evident:

"1. The majority of California school administrators *do not* desire to join any established *regional* accrediting agency.

"2. They *do not* desire to set up any California accrediting association comparable to a regional accrediting agency.

"3. They *do* desire the University to con-

tinue its policy of accrediting schools for University admission purposes.

"4. They *do* wish to work with the State Department to evaluate and recognize the general-education programs of the schools."

McCoy, JOHN H., with the co-operation of WADE S. MILLER and SAMUEL S. GEORGE. "A Calendar of College Activities, 1948-49 Edition." Los Angeles, California: John H. McCoy (Occidental College), 1948. Pp. 49 (mimeographed).

Presents day-by-day suggestions for a program of public relations during the school year. Also included are a special section on alumni and fund work. In addition to these sections, two bibliographies are presented: one listing references dealing with public relations in general, the other citing works pertaining to alumni and fund-raising activities.

MUSHLITZ, M. E. "Academic Preparation of Junior-College Personnel," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (December, 1947), 492-95.

Summarizes the findings of a survey of the professional training of junior-college certificated personnel in California. Though prefaced by the statement that neither the number of degrees nor the amount of semester hours of training should be the only criterion for good teaching, the article maintains that these factors are, nonetheless, strong indications of professional growth in the art of teaching and that there is "merit in the belief that one needs to explore a subject-matter field to its depth in order to view it in synthesis with all learning and its ultimate effects upon behavior."

The records of certificated personnel who teach in California public day junior colleges show that these persons "have spent much time and effort in order to professionalize their jobs and to prepare themselves as leaders in this important segment of secondary education." Of the 1,884 certificated employees in these institutions during the 1946-47 school year who were teaching full-time or part-time in the day school, 1,692 had

advanced degrees; 1,452 had earned the Master's degree; and 240 had been granted doctorates. "Thus approximately 90 per cent of all instructors in full- or part-time teaching positions held advanced degrees, and over 12 per cent had been granted doctorates." A large number of those whose highest degree was the Master's were well along toward the doctorate.

The security resulting from thorough preparation for the work of the classroom, Mushlitz points out, is of basic importance to instructors. "A study of instructional assignments of these teachers reveals that the administration has to a great extent been aware of, and has acted upon, this premise." Of the 1,452 instructors holding the Master's degree, 1,339 were teaching either entirely in the major or the minor field of their preparation or in both. Also, 225 of the 240 instructors who held the Doctor's degree were teaching either entirely in the major or minor fields of their preparation or in both. Thirty-five persons with advanced degrees were spending their entire time teaching subjects outside their majors and minors.

Referring to the cases of instructors whose work was entirely or partially outside their fields of preparation, it is noted that practical or vocational background, teacher avocation, and personality adjustment all enter into the web of instructional assignments. "Possibly, the instructors concerned may have had such a broad general education that for them the lines of subject fields have the ideal might well be to make the irregular disappeared. If the latter is the case, then the commonplace and thus get away from fragmentation of the curriculum."

Persons who had majors or minors in English or social studies were most frequently assigned to instruct in other areas. In highly specialized areas, such as the sciences, foreign languages, and music, the teaching assignments followed closely the instructor's professional preparation.

Most of the advanced degrees held had been granted by graduate schools within the state of California. Three major universities had granted 846 of the Masters' and 149 of the Doctors' degrees held by these junior-college instructors. The three institutions are



the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Southern California, and Stanford University. Altogether, the instructors had done advanced work in 115 graduate schools representing practically every section of the United States plus seven foreign countries. "This geographical and cultural spread in preparation is a healthy antidote to inbreeding in teacher education."

RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. "The Broadening College Base," *Survey Graphic*, XXXVI (November, 1947), 595-98.

An analytical treatise concerned with the increasing democratization of American educational opportunity beyond the conventional high school and the desirability for continuation of the trend observed. The arguments posed and the conclusions reached are of high significance to the junior-college movement in American education.

Eight facts are advanced as evidence that educational opportunities beyond high school are being sought by increasing proportions of young people. First mentioned is the tenfold increase in college and university enrollment which has occurred between 1890 and 1940. Second, the number of accredited colleges and universities has gone up ever since the accrediting agencies began their work some thirty-five years ago. The rapid development of junior colleges and technical institutes is held to be a third evidence of the trend toward a broader base for higher education. Fourth, the range in the subject matter included in college and university curriculums has expanded enormously during the past century. Fifth, there is the increasing tendency of institutions to accept students with talents that do not lie strictly along the lines of "book learning." Another item of evidence is the almost universal recognition of vocational preparation as a sound objective of higher education. A seventh is the extent to which college training is now a job requirement. Finally, educational opportunity beyond high school is being expanded by increasing provisions of financial subsidies for students by colleges, commercial firms, states, and the federal government.

With regard to the democratizing influence of junior colleges, Russell observes that these institutions permit thousands of young people to continue their schooling for at least two years beyond Grade XII without having to leave home. Furthermore, it has been established that in communities with agencies of higher education larger proportions of young people go to college. "Many of the new junior colleges and technical institutes are extensions of local school systems, with free tuition or relatively low fees. This has opened the doors of higher education to many young people who otherwise could not have continued their schooling."

Opposed to the factors presented as evidences of advanced democratization of higher education, five counteracting pressures are identified. First of these is the rapid increase in the fees charged students and the rising costs of college attendance. A second consideration is the maintenance of admission policies which discriminate against certain groups of students. A related factor is the inadequate educational opportunities for Negro high-school graduates in many states. A fourth trend is the policy in publicly controlled institutions of restricting admission to residents of the state. Fifth, there is a resistance within the institutions themselves to the expansions in physical plant and curriculum necessary if the democratization of higher education is to continue.

After deliberate consideration of the foregoing arguments, Russell raises the issue of the wisdom of further expansion in higher education. He concludes: (1) "the urgent need is that an increasing proportion of the population be well grounded in economics, political science, history, philosophy, literature, art, music, and related subjects that lead to better citizenship and an enriched personal life; (2) the limits of the capacity of modern society to absorb the product of higher education far exceed any present prospects for the production of college-trained specialists; (3) the money spent for higher education does not represent values consumed, but capital invested, and from that investment the society of the future may expect generous dividends."

"Second Conference for Junior College Administrators." Edited by James W. Reynolds. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948. Pp. 29 (mimeographed).

Reports the proceedings of a three-day conference for junior-college administrators. It is evident that, from the start, the motivating purpose of the conference was not to provide ready answers to the problems discussed but to bring attention to bear on basic issues in junior-college administration and to stimulate free exchange of ideas and experiences. Among the topics considered at the conference are student personnel problems, teacher preparation, curriculum, and problems in administration.

Within each area, specific difficulties were raised for particular deliberation. These included the procedures by which students can be aided in making the choice between terminal and preparatory courses, the advantages and disadvantages stemming from the student-government organization, intercollegiate athletics, qualities that should be possessed by junior-college teachers, effective devices for improvement of instruction, the relative advantages of four-year and two-year junior colleges, effective methods of securing full support of the patrons of the college, the implications of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education for public and private junior colleges, and the extent to which the junior college is obliged to meet all the educational needs of the community which it serves.

In addition to lucid summarization of the discussion at the conference, there also appears in this document a paraphrased reproduction of a talk presented at one of the sessions by Dean Philip Davidson, of the Senior College and Graduate School at Vanderbilt University, on the subject "The Place of the Junior College in American Education." Dean Davidson in his talk pointed out the almost general adoption of the idea that every person ought to have an opportunity

to obtain an education through the junior-college level at public expense. The trend is toward the community college which will provide services for all our people. This community college will call for a reshifting of the college population and will have significant implications for the four-year colleges.

At present, Dean Davidson also pointed out, the four-year colleges do not like transfer students; they like to get the student in his Freshman year and train him in their own way for four years. This practice, Dean Davidson asserts, must be changed; entrance practices must be modified; the program for the last two years in four-year colleges must be remodeled. Need also exists for graduate schools to change from a program of training specialists to one of preparing people with broad general backgrounds to be junior-college teachers.

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